THE
NIZÂM'S DOMINIONS
English Miles
0 20 40 60 80 100
CENTRAL
PROVINCES
WEST BERÂR
EAST BERÂR
BOMBAY PRESIDENCY
MADRAS PRESIDENCY
Northern Sirkars
Raichûr Doâb
District of Dharasho
Shorâpûr Principality
Shorâpûr
Raichûr
Mûdgul
Bellary
Kadapa
Kurnûl
Bidar
Nûldrûg
Shôlapûr
Akulkôt
Kulbûrga
Afzûlpûr
Bîjapûr
Talikôt
Nilgûnda
Dâverconda
Golconda
Secunderâbâd
HYDERÂBÂD
Bolârum
Warangal
Maiduk
Mûdhôl
Nirmul
Nandair
Gungâkheir
Darûr
Bhûr
Hûrdlâ
Purinda
Tuljapûr
Kalhânî
Ûdghîr
Manjîra R.
R. Godâvarî
R. Kishtna
R. Tûmbhadra
R. Huarî
R. Bîma R.
R. Mûsî
R. Godâvarî
R. Wardâ R.
Wain Gangâ R.
Chandâ
Manichdrûg
Oomerkhaid
Mâhûr
Hingoli
Pain Gangâ R.
Bassim
Mulkapûr
Jâlna
Dowlatâbâd
Aurungabâd
Ellôra
Dêogâum
Toka
Paithun
Ahmednagar
Indâpûr
Bîjapûr
Shôlapûr
Akulkôt
Kulbûrga
Afzûlpûr
Bîma R.
Shorâpûr
Arikêra
Talikôt
Kishtna
Savanûr
Bellary
Kurnûl
Mûdgul
Raichûr
Nilgûnda
Dâverconda
Golconda
Secunderâbâd
HYDERÂBÂD
Bolârum
Warangal
Maiduk
Mûdhôl
Nirmul
Nandair
Gungâkheir
Bhûr
Darûr
Hûrdlâ
Tuljapûr
Kalhânî
Ûdghîr
Bidar
Nûldrûg
Shôlapûr
Akulkôt
Kulbûrga
Afzûlpûr
Bîjapûr
Shorâpûr
Arikêra
Shorâpûr
Talikôt
Mûdgul
Raichûr
Kurnûl
Bellary
Kadapa
Guntûr
Baimâra
Nagpur
Ellichpûr
Nurnulla
Argâom
Gôwilgarh
Asîrghar
Burhânpûr
Chandpûr
Bâlapûr
Murtezapûr
Budnair
Chandûr
Adjunta
Bokerdûn
Assai
Jaffirâbâd
MEHKUR
Bassim
Mulkapûr
Jâlna
Dowlatâbâd
Aurungabâd
Ellôra
Dêogâum
Toka
Paithun
Ahmednagar
Bhûr
Hûrdlâ
Darûr
Purinda
Tuljapûr
Indâpûr
Bîma R.
Sîna R.
Kishtna
Kailna
Ellôra
Dûdhna
Godâvarî
Wardâ R.
Wain Gangâ R.
Chandâ
Seroncha
Baitûl
Tapti
Tapti
Nurnulla
Ellichpûr
Nagpur
Gôwilgarh
Asîrghar
Burhânpûr
Chandpûr
Bâlapûr
Murtezapûr
Budnair
Chandûr
Adjunta
Bokerdûn
Assai
Jaffirâbâd
Ellôra
Dêogâum
Aurungabâd
Jâlna
Dowlatâbâd
Mulkapûr
Bassim
Hingoli
Pain Gangâ R.
Mâhûr
Oomerkhaid
Manichdrûg
Wardâ R.
Wain Gangâ R.
Chandâ
Nirmul
Nandair
Gungâkheir
Bhûr
Hûrdlâ
Darûr
Ûdghîr
Manjîra R.
Kalhânî
Bîma R.
Nûldrûg
Shôlapûr
Akulkôt
Kulbûrga
Afzûlpûr
Bîjapûr
Shorâpûr
Arikêra
Shorâpûr
Nilgûnda
Dâverconda
Golconda
Secunderâbâd
Bolârum
Warangal
Maiduk
Nirmul
Gungâkheir
Bhûr
Hûrdlâ
Darûr
Ûdghîr
Bîma R.
Nûldrûg
Shôlapûr
Kulbûrga
Bîjapûr
Shorâpûr
Arikêra
Dâverconda
Nilgûnda
Baimâra
Guntûr
Kishtna
Kurnûl
Bellary
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The Bengâl Presidency.

Extent of India.

§ 3. India extends about 1,900 miles from north to south, and 1,500 miles from east to west, and contains 1,500,000 square miles.

From Karâchi in Sind to the eastern borders of Assam is 1,800 miles.

Population.

§ 4. Its population is about 187 millions; and varies from 600 to a square mile in Bengâl, to 10 in some of the hill districts.

Grand divisions of India.

§ 5. In this vast territory we must distinguish:

I. *The British dominions* strictly so called;

II. Provinces *under British protection, and more or less dependent upon Britain;*

III. *Independent States*, in alliance with Great Britain, and acknowledging her as the paramount power;

IV. A few small spots belonging to other European powers.

It will be useful to the student to have a connected account of the political divisions of the country before approaching its history.

Political divisions of British India.

§ 6. The British dominions in India are divided into Presidencies, Vice-presidencies, and provinces under Commissioners. There are three Presidencies.

The Bengâl Presidency.

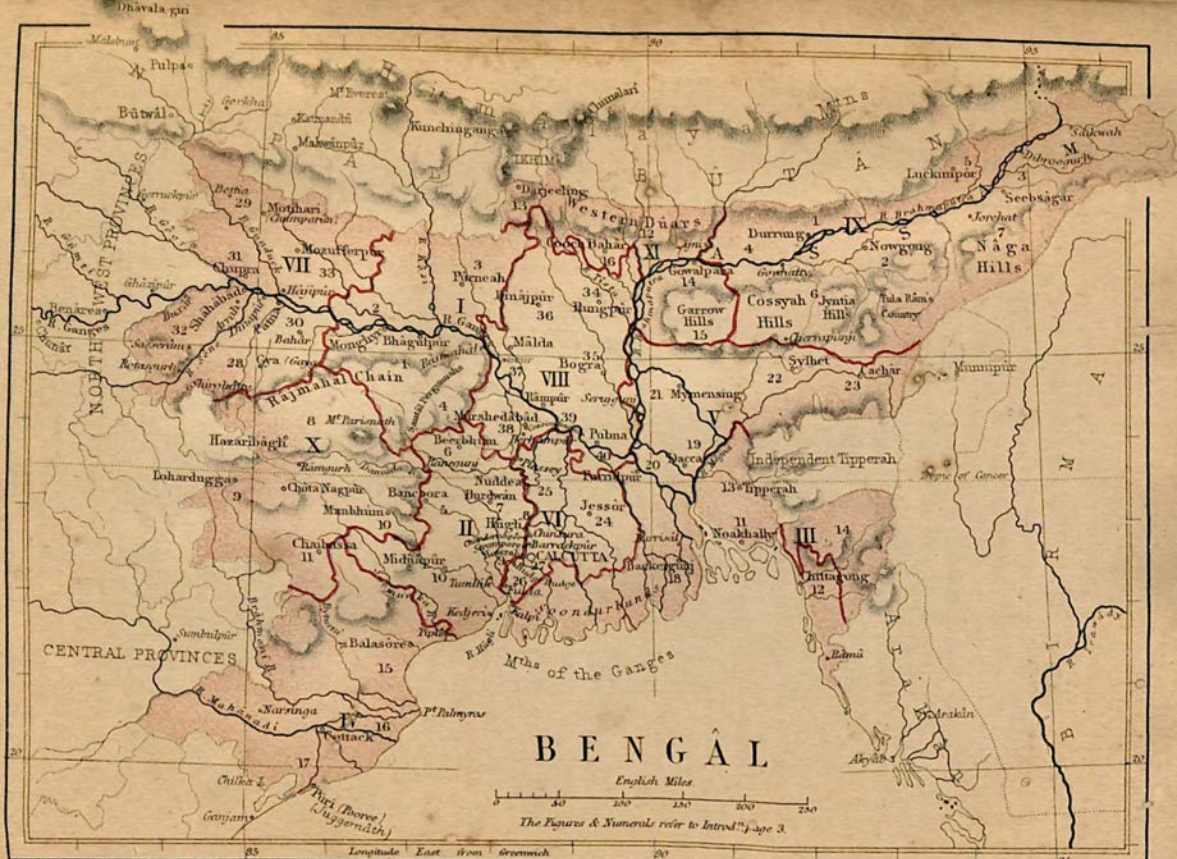
§ 7. (I.) The BENGÂL PRESIDENCY. (See map.) Of this *Calcutta* is the capital, and here the Viceroy and Governor-General, whose authority is supreme over all India, resides. The Governor-General's legislative council makes laws for all India in general, and for all but Madras, Bombay, and Bengâl in detail.

The supreme Government.

Every act of the subordinate councils must be confirmed by the Governor-General.

The home Government.

The Secretary of State for India can advise Her Majesty to *veto* any act of the Governor-General's Council. The Secretary of State for India, with his council of fifteen members, is thus supreme.



W. H. Allen & Co. London, S.W.
Witherby & Co. Lithe. London.

§ 8. In this Presidency,

(1.) BENGÂL itself has been under a *Lieutenant-Governor* since 1853. His control extends over *Bihâr* (*Bahar*) and *Bengâl proper*, *Orissa* and *Assâm*. Bengâl. Comp. ch. x. § 145.

The number of divisions here is eleven, and of districts fifty-six.

The following is a table of the sub-divisions of the Bengâl territory. (See map.)

DIVISIONS.	DISTRICTS.	DIVISIONS.	DISTRICTS.
I. BHÂGULPÛR (Boglipûr).	1 Bhâgulpûr.	VII. PATNA.	28 Gyâ (Gaya).
	2 Monghyr.		29 Chumpârun.
	3 Purneah (Pûrnia).		30 Patna.
	4 Santâl Pergunnahs.		31 Sârun.
			32 Shâhâbâd.
II. BURDWÂN.	5 Bancoora.		33 Tirhût.
	6 Beerbhûm.	VIII. RÂJSHÂHÎ.	34 Rungpûr.
	7 Burdwân.		35 Bogra.
	8 Hûglî.		36 Dînâjpûr.
	9 Howrah.		37 Mâlda.
	10 Midnâpûr.		38 Mûrshedâbâd.
	11 Noakhally.		39 Râjshâhî.
III. CHITTAGONG.	12 Chittagong.		40 Pubna.
	13 Tipperah.	IX. ASSÂM.	1 Durrung.
	14 The Chittagong Hill Tracts.		2 Nowgong.
			3 Seebsâgar.
IV. CATTACK. (Ch. v. § 56.)	15 Balasôr.		4 Kâmrûp.
	16 Cattack.		5 Lukhimpûr.
	17 Pûrî (Pooree).		6 Cossyah and Jyntia Hills.
	18 Backergunj.		
V. DACCA.	19 Dacca.		7 Nâga Hills.
	20 Furrîdpûr.	X. CHOTA. NÂGPÛR. (Chuttia.)	8 Hazarîbâgh.
	21 Mymensing.		9 Lohârdugga.
	22 Sylhet.		10 Manbhûm.
	23 Cachâr.		11 Singbhûm.
VI. NUDDEA.	24 Jessôr.		12 Western Duârs.
	25 Nuddea.	XI. COOCH BIHÂR.	13 Darjeeling.
	26 The 24 Pergunnahs.		14 Gowalpara.
	27 The City of Calcutta.		15 Garrow Hills.
			16 Cooch Bahâr.

INTRO. § 8, 9. **The North-Western Provinces.**

Population. The total population of this province is above 40,000,000. It is considerably larger than France: being more than two hundred thousand square miles in area.

Sikhim. Sikhim is independent. Dârjîling (a favourite sanitarium) was purchased in 1835. On the south-west

Comp. ch. v. § 134. frontier are twenty-one Mehâls, or small districts, and the Cattack tributary Mehâls now number nineteen. These mostly came under England in 1803.

Orissa tributary States. These latter are

1. Angul.
2. Athgarh.
3. Athmallik.
4. Bânki.
5. Barambâ.
6. Bod.
7. Daspallâ.
8. Dhenkânal.
9. Hindol.
10. Keunjhâr.
11. Khandpârâ.
12. Morbhanj.
13. Narsinhpur.
14. Nilgiri.
15. Nayâgarh.
16. Pâl Laharâ.
17. Ranpur.
18. Tâlchor, and
19. Tigariâ.

Cossyah and Jyntia. Connected with Assâm are the *Cossyah* and *Jyntia* hill territories, in which are many semi-independent chiefs; and the Garrow country, with which we have little intercourse.

The flourishing tea-plantations of Assâm have attracted an immense body of immigrants, chiefly from Lower Bengâl, the highlands of Beerbhûm, and the Santâl country generally.

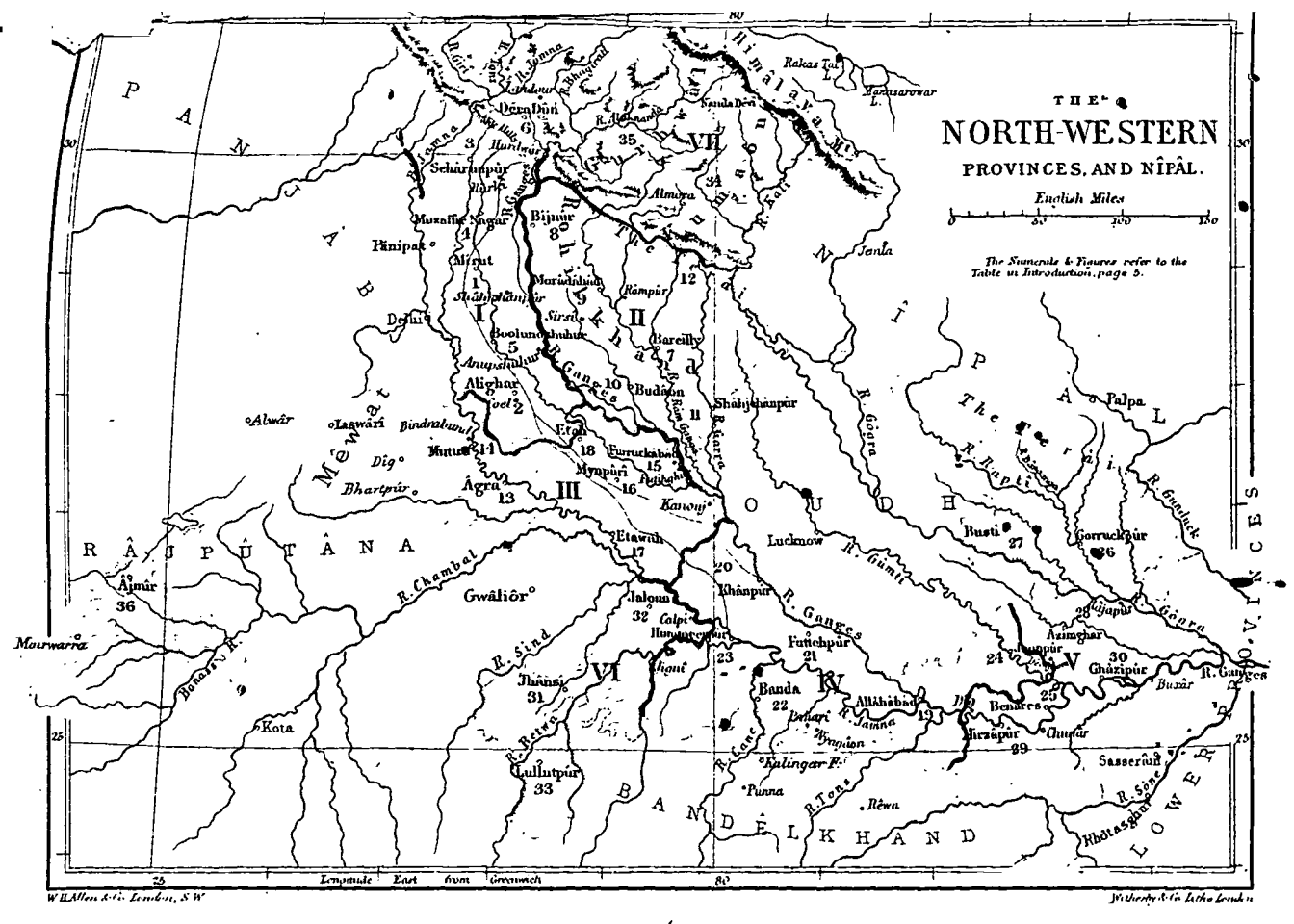
Munnipûr. The state of Munnipûr pays no tribute.

Cooch Bahâr. Cooch Bahâr, in 1772, became tributary, paying half its revenues to the British, in return for the expulsion of the Bûtias.

Tipperah. Here is independent *Tipperah*, which was never subjected by the Moguls, and is perfectly independent.

North-West Provinces. § 9. (2.) The North-West Provinces are also under a *Lieutenant-Governor* (since 1834): its capital is Allâhâbâd.

Extent. This territory extends, as seen in the map, along the banks of the Jamnah and Ganges, including *Allâhâbâd*, *Âgra*, and *Benâres*, the heart of the ancient Hindûstân. Delhi has now been put under the Panjâb Government.


THE
NORTH-WESTERN
PROVINCES, AND NÎPÂL.
English Miles
0
50
100
150
The Numerals & Figures refer to the Table in Introduction, page 5.
PANJÂB
NÎPÂL
RÂJPÛTÂNA
OUDH
BANDÊLKHAND
LOWER PROVINCES
Himâlaya Mts.
Rohilkhand
The Terâi
Mêwat
Mairwarra
Rakas Tal
Manasarowar
Dêra Dûn
Hardwar
Saharanpur
Muzaffar Nagar
Pânipat
Mîrut
Bijnûr
Moradâbâd
Râmpûr
Sîrsa
Bareilly
Budâon
Shâhjahânpur
Alîgarh
Etah
Furruckabâd
Mynpûrî
Âgra
Kanouj
Etawah
Lucknow
Alwâr
Laswârî
Bindrabun
Mutra
Dîg
Bhartpûr
Delhi
Ajmîr
Gwâliôr
Jalaun
Calpî
Hummeerpur
Jhânsî
Kota
Lullutpur
Banda
Futtehpur
Khânpur
Allâhâbâd
Benares
Mirzâpur
Chunâr
Azimghar
Ghâzîpur
Gorruckpur
Bustî
Palpa
Sasserâm
Kalingar F.
Pânna
Rêwa
Rhôtasghur
Jenla
R. Jamna
R. Ganges
R. Chambal
R. Sind
R. Betwa
R. Cane
R. Tons
R. Gômtî
R. Gôgra
R. Gârra
R. Rapti
R. Gunduck
R. Sône
R. Bonass
Longitude East from Greenwich
W. H. Allen & Co. London, S.W.
Witherby & Co. Litho. London

Districts.

It contains thirty-six districts, under seven Commissioners.

(Ch. x. § 74.)

Here are the Râjas of Gurhwâl and Shâhpûra.

Hill States.

There are also here nineteen Hill States, to whose rulers the right of adoption has been conceded by the Paramount power. (§ 24.)

The following is the table of the sub-divisions of the North-West Provinces :—

Divisions.	Districts.	Divisions.	Districts.
I. Mîrat.	1 Mîrat.*	IV. Allâhâbâd.	19 Allâhâbâd.*
	2 Alîghar.		20 Khânpûr.*
	3 Sehârunpûr.		21 Futtehpûr.
	4 Muzaffir Nagar.		22 Banda.
	5 Boolundshuhur.		23 Hummeerpûr.
	6 Dêra Dûn.		24 Jounpûr.
II. Rohilkhand.	7 Bareilly.*	V. Benâres.	25 Benâres.*
	8 Bîjnûr.		26 Gorakhpûr.*
	9 Morâdâbâd.*		27 Bustî.
	10 Budâon.		28 Azimghar.
	11 Shâhjehânpûr.		29 Mirzâpûr.*
	12 Terâi.		30 Ghâzîpûr.
III. Agra (or Agrah).	13 Âgra.*	VI. Jhânsî.	31 Jhânsî.
	14 Muttra.* (Mat'hura).		32 Jaloun.
			33 Lullutpûr.
	15 Furruckâbâd.*		34 Kumâon.
	16 Mynpûrî.	VII. Kumâon.	35 Garhwâl.
	17 Etawah.		36 Ajmîr (Râjpûtâna).
	18 Etah.		

The places marked * are the great cities.

Population.

The population of this great territory is about 30,000,000. It is nearly equal in area to Great Britain.

The Panjâb. [Map, p. 384.]

§ 10. (3.) The Panjâb is under a Lieutenant-Governor, and is divided into thirty-two districts, under ten Commissioners. (Comp. ch. xi. § 46.)

INTRO. § 10. **The Panjâb.**

There are six Cis-Satlaj States, to whose rulers the right of adoption has been given. (§ 24.)

Kashmîr and the Trans-Satlaj States may be here mentioned.

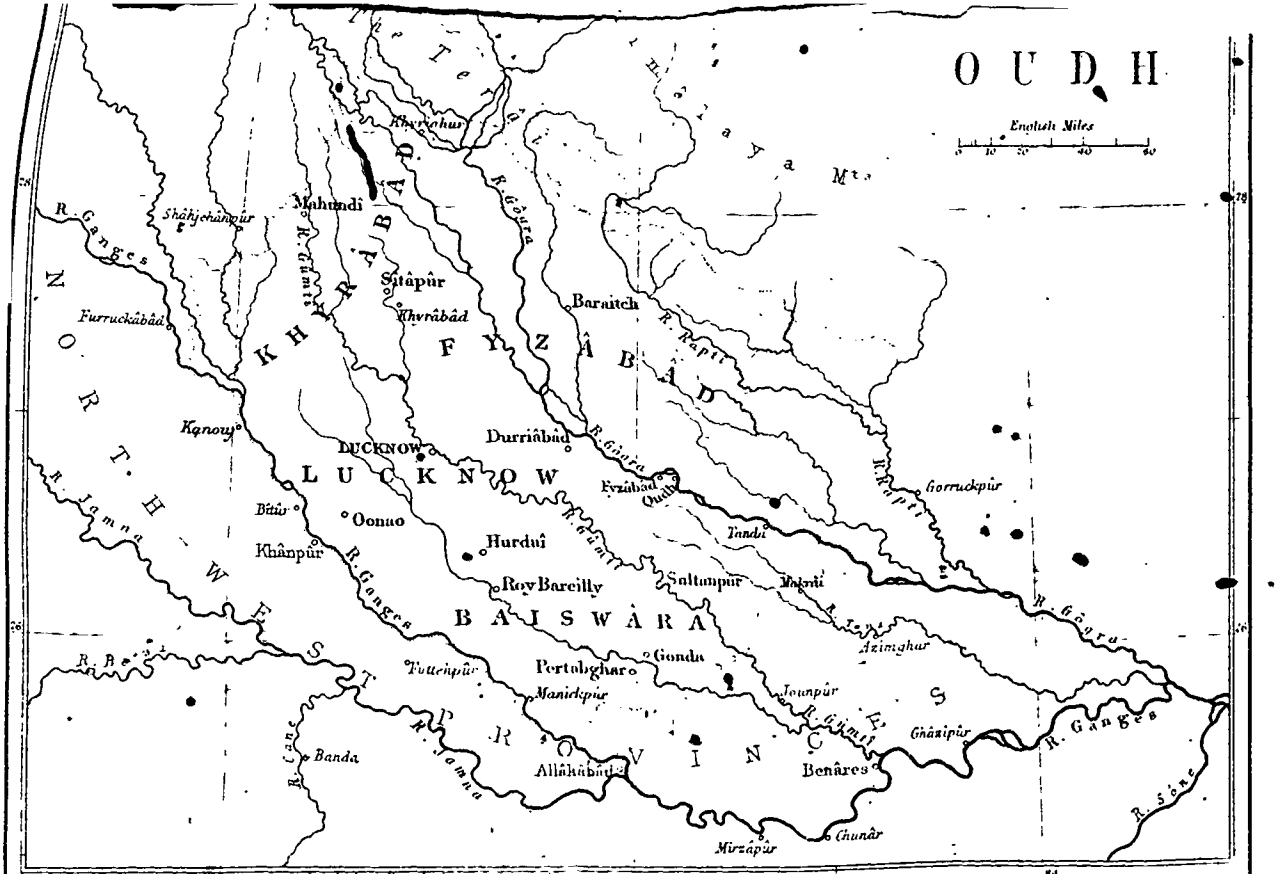
Kashmîr. The treaty of Umritsîr, 16th March 1846, put Golâb Sing in possession of *Kashmîr* (ch. xi. § 34), between the Indus and the Ravî. The Mahârâja died in 1857, and his son, Rumbir Sing, succeeded. The right of adoption has been granted to him.

Sikh protected states. There are also the Râjas of *Kapurthala*, *Mandi*, *Chamba*, and *Sukhêt*, and the Sirdârs Shâmshîr Sing Sindhanwâla, and Têj Sing, who are included in the list in § 24.

Bhâwalpûr. The Khân of Bhâwalpûr is protected by the terms of a treaty made in 1838. He receives a pension for his services in 1849. (Ch. xi. § 35.)

(Comp. ch. xi. § 1, &c.) The following is a list of the sub-divisions of the Panjâb territory :—

Divisions.	Districts.	Divisions.	Districts.
I. Delhi.	1 Delhi. 2 Gurgâon. 3 Kurnâl.	VII. Râwal Pindî.	19 Râwal Pindî. 20 Jhîlam. 21 Gujarât. 22 Shâhpûr.
II. Hissar.	4 Hissar. 5 Rohlak. 6 Sirsa.	VIII. Mûltân.	23 Mûltân. 24 Jhang. 25 Montgomery. 26 Muzaffirghar.
III. Umbâla.	7 Umbâla. 8 Lûdiâna. 9 Simla.	IX. Dêrajât.	27 Dêra Ismael Khân. 28 Dêra Ghâzî Khân. 29 Bannu.
IV. Jullindhur (Julindar).	10 Jullindhur. 11 Hushiarpûr. 12 Kangra.	X. Peshâwar.	30 Peshâwar. 31 Kohât. 32 Hazara.
V. Umritsîr.	13 Umritsîr. 14 Sealkôt. 15 Gurdaspûr.		
VI. Lâhôr.	16 Lâhôr. 17 Ferôz-pûr. 18 Gujarânwâla.		


OUDH
English Miles
0 10 20 40 60
The Terâi
Khyrighur
Mahundî
Shâhjehânpûr
R. Ganges
R. Gûmti
Sîtâpûr
Khyrâbâd
Furruckâbâd
KHYRÂBÂD
FYZÂBÂD
Baraitch
R. Gôgra
R. Rapti
Kanouj
LUCKNOW
Durriâbâd
Fyzâbâd
Oudh
Gorruckpûr
Bîtûr
Oonao
Khânpûr
Hurduî
Roy Bareilly
Tandâ
Sultanpûr
Malnâî
R. Jamna
R. Gûmti
R. Ganges
BAISWÂRA
Azimghar
Gonda
Pertabghar
Tuttehpûr
Manickpûr
Jounpûr
R. Gûmti
Ghâzipûr
R. Ganges
R. Sône
Banda
R. Cane
R. Jamna
Allâhâbâd
Benâres
Chunâr
Mirzâpûr
NORTH-WEST PROVINCES
Longitude East from Greenwich
80
82
84
78
76
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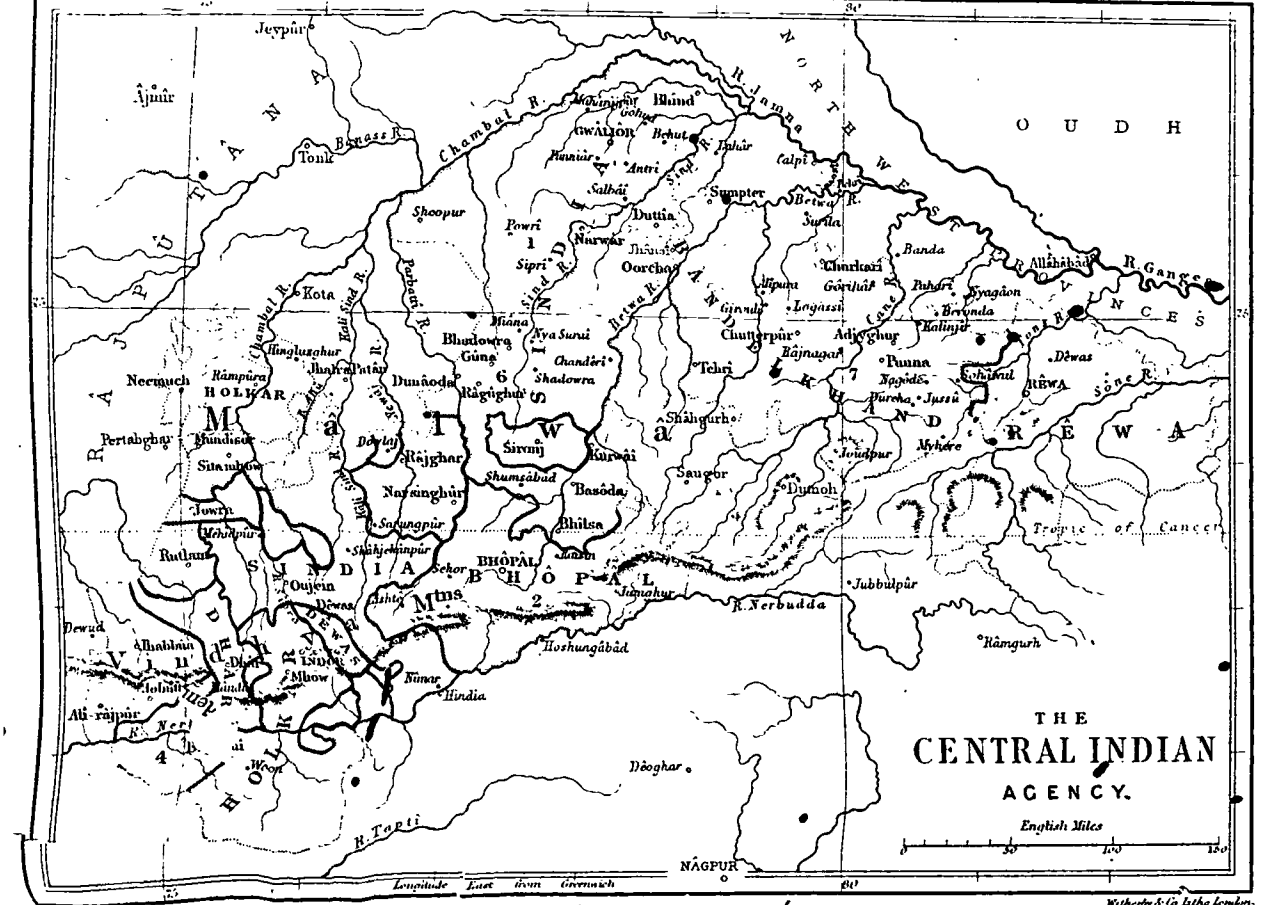
Withesby & Co. Litho. London


THE
CENTRAL INDIAN
AGENCY.
English Miles
0
50
100
150
Longitude East from Greenwich
Withers & Co Litho London
OUDH
NORTH WEST PROVINCES
RAJPUTANA
Jeypur
Âjmîr
Tonk
Banass R.
Chambal R.
Kota
Kali Sind R.
Parbatti R.
Shoopur
Powri
Sipri
Narwar
Sind R.
Betwa R.
Bhind
GWALIOR
Behut
Panniâr
Antri
Salbâi
Sumpter
Calpi
Jahâr
R. Jamna
Betwa R.
Surila
Banda
Allâhâbâd
R. Ganges
Charkari
Gôrihâr
Pahari
Nyagâon
Bevonda
Kalinjer
Lagassi
Alipura
Gurrula
Chunderpur
Adjeghur
Râjnagar
Tehri
Punna
Nagôde
Purcha
Jussu
Sohâwal
Dêwas
RÊWA
Sône R.
Shâhgurh
Joudpur
Myhere
Saugor
Dumoh
Kurwâi
Shumsâbad
Basôda
Bhilsa
Râjghar
Narsinghûr
Sarungpur
Shâhjehânpur
Sehor
BHÔPÂL
Jamghur
Jubbulpur
R. Nerbudda
Hoshungâbâd
Nûmar
Hindia
Râmgurh
Dêoghar
R. Tapti
NÂGPUR
Tropic of Cancer
Bhuduwra
Gûna
Miâna
Nya Surai
Chandêri
Shadowra
Dunâoda
Râgûghur
Hinglusghur
Jhâra Patan
Nemuch
Râmpûra
HOLKAR
Pertabghar
Mundisôr
Sitamhow
Jowra
Mehidpur
Rutlam
Oujein
Dêwas
Dewud
Jhabhûa
Dhâr
Indôr
Mhow
Jobut
Ali-râjpur
R. Nerbudda
Woon
Mâlwa
SINDIA
Mhs
DEWAS
Vindhyan
HOLKAR
Sind R.
Kali Sind R.
Chambal R.
Betwa R.
Ken R.
Sône R.
Jamna R.
Ganges R.
Nerbudda R.
Tapti R.
1
2
4
6
7

The population of this territory is nearly 15,000,000. It is about the size of Italy.

§ 11. (4) OUDH is entrusted to a Chief Commissioner, under whom are four Commissioners, with twelve districts. (See map.) Oudh.

DIVISIONS.	DISTRICTS.	DIVISIONS.	DISTRICTS.
I. LUCKNOW.	1 Lucknow. 2 Oonao. 3 Durriâbâd.	III. FYZÂBÂD.	7 Baraitch. 8 Fyzâbâd. 9 Gonda.
II. KHYRÂBÂD.	4 Sîtâpûr. 5 Hurdui. 6 Mahundî.	IV. BAISWÂRA.	10 Sultânpûr. 11 Pertabghar (Pratâpghar). 12 Roy Bareilly.

The population is 8,500,000. It is about equal in extent to Holland and Belgium together.

§ 12. (5.) The CENTRAL INDIA, or INDÔR, AGENCY. Here are no less than seventy-one states. Central India Agency.

This large district includes Mâlwah, Bandêlkhand, and other districts between the Chambal and the Jamnah. The *principal* tributary States of Central India are six in number:—Gwâliâr, Indôr, Bhôpâl, Dhâr, Dêwas, and Jowra. Six states.

The agent to the Governor-General in Central India resides at *Indôr*. This is the capital of the Mahârâja Holkâr. (Comp. ch. v. § 160.) Connected with this are *Dêwas* and *Bagli*. He has besides seven agencies under him. These are:— Governor-General's agent and seven subordinates.

1. The political agent at Gwâliâr. This is the capital of the Mahârâja Sindia. (Comp. ch. v. § 161.) Sindia's dominions.

2. The political agent of Bhôpâl. (Ch. v. § 96.) This is the capital of the Rânî of Bhôpâl. Connected Bhôpâl.

(Ch. x. § 102.) with this are the petty districts of Râjghar, Narsinghûr, Kilchipûr, Kurwâî, Muxudanghar, Muhammadghar, Patharea, Basôda, and Larâwat.

Bhîl Agency. 3. The Bhîl agent and political assistant. Under him are Dhâr, Jhabbûa, Alî Râjpûr, and Jobutt. (Ch. v. § 165.)

Deputy Bhîl Agency. 4. The Deputy Bhîl agent. Under him are Mânpûr (a British Pergunnah), Burwânî, and other smaller districts.

Western Mâlwah. 5. The political agent of Western Mâlwah. He superintends Jowra, Rutlam, Sita-mhow, Sillâna, and Jhalra Patân.

Gûna. 6. The political agent of Gûna. Under him are Râgûghur, Ghurra, Parone (or Narwâr), Omri, Bhadowra, Dunâoda, and Sirsî.

Bandêlkhand. (Comp. ch. x. § 70.) The political agent of Bandêlkhand. These states are thirty-five in number, and include Rêwa, Oorcha, Duttîa, Sumptur, Punna, Churkarî, Chatterpûr, and Adjyghur.

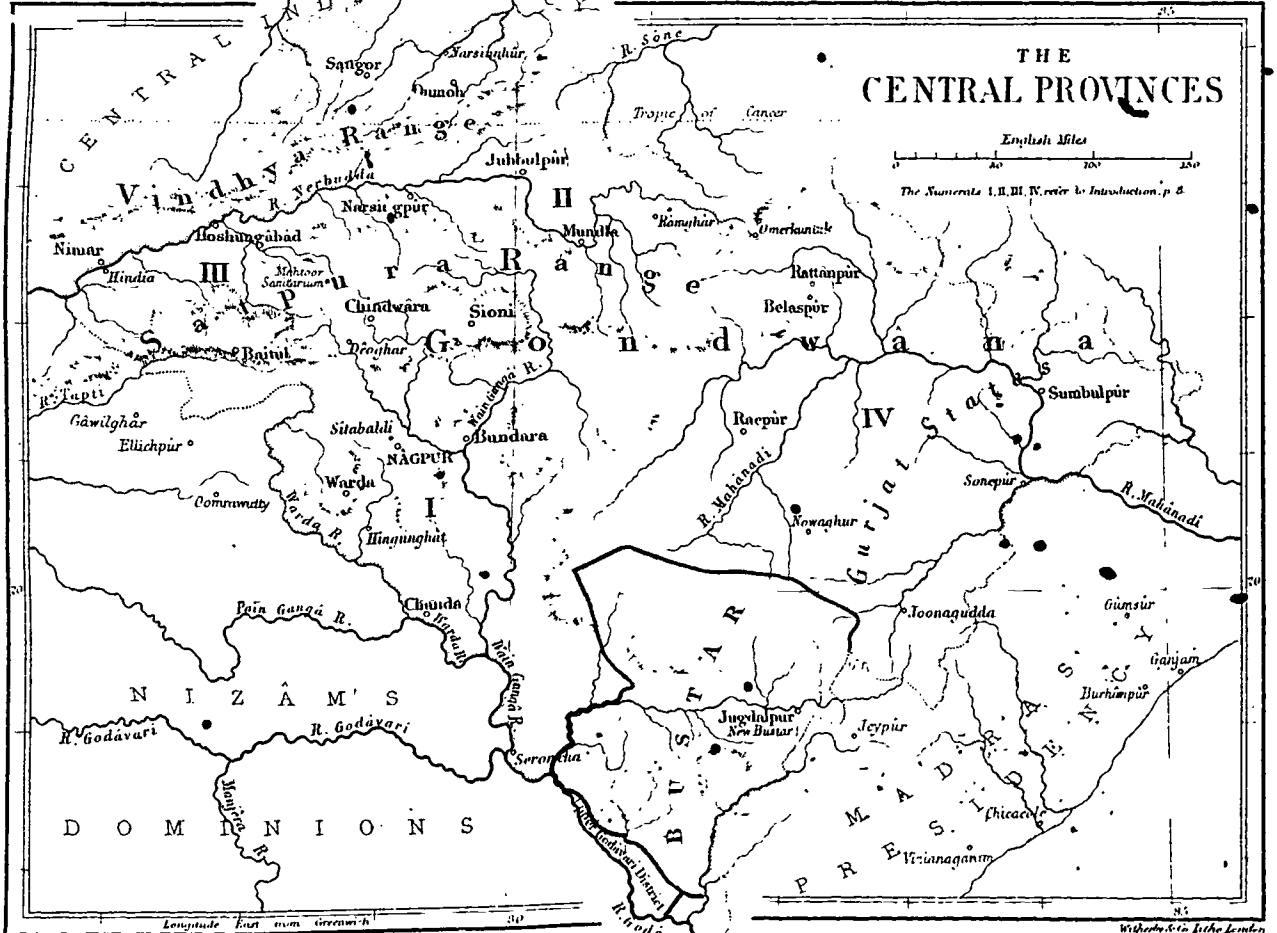
Opium. Opium is one of the great products of Mâlwah. The revenue from this was 21,660,600 rupees in 1868-69.

Education, railways, and other products and means of civilisation, have effected slow but real changes in this whole district.

Central Provinces. § 13. (6.) The Central Provinces. These include a great portion of the table-land of Central India. Here the Narbaddah, the Tâptî, the Mahânadî, and several important tributaries of the Godâvarî, have their rise. Here was the kingdom of the Eastern Mahrattas, founded by *Raghuji Bhonslê* I. (Ch. v. § 45–159.)

It is about the size of the Madras Presidency, or as large as Great Britain and Ireland together.

It is divided, as shown in the following table, into four Commissionerships, in which are eighteen districts and fourteen Feudatory Chieftainships.


THE
CENTRAL PROVINCES
English Miles
0
50
100
150
The Numerals I, II, III, IV, refer to Introduction, p. 8.
CENTRAL INDIA AGENCY
Vindhya Range
Satpura Range
Gondwana
Gurjat States
BUSTAR
MADRAS PRESIDENCY
NIZÂM'S DOMINIONS
Sangor
Narsinghur
Dumoh
R. Sone
Tropic of Cancer
Jubbulpur
R. Nerbudda
Narsingpur
Hoshungabad
Nimar
Hindia
Mahtoor Sanitarium
Chindwara
Sioni
Mundla
Ramghar
Omerkuntak
Rattanpur
Belaspur
Baitul
Deoghar
R. Tapti
Gawilghar
Ellichpur
Sitabaldi
NAGPUR
Bundara
Warda
Warda R.
Comrawutty
Hingunghat
Chanda
Pain Gangâ R.
Wain Gangâ R.
Raepur
R. Mahânadi
Nowaghur
Sumbulpur
Sonepur
R. Mahânadi
Joonagudda
Gumsur
Ganjam
Burhampur
Jugdalpur
New Bustar
Jeypur
Seroncha
R. Godâvari
Manjera R.
Chicacole
Vizianagaram
Lower Godâvari District
Longitude East from Greenwich
Witherby & Co. Litho London

Commissioner-ships.	Districts.	Commissioner-ships.	Districts.
I. Nâgpur.	1 Nâgpûr.	III. Narbaddah.	10 Hoshungâbâd.
	2 Bundara.		11 Baitûl.
	3 Chanda.		12 Narsinghur.
	4 Warda.		13 Chindwâra.
II. Jubbulpûr.	5 Jubbulpûr.		14 Nîmar.
	6 Sâgar.	IV. Chatisghur. (Raïpanpûr.)	15 Raepûr.
	7 Dumoh.		16 Belaspûr.
	8 Sioni.		17 Sumbulpûr.
	9 Mundla.		18 Upper Godâvarî.

The population is a little above 9,000,000.

The chief feudatories are the *Bustar* Râja, the chief of a wild tribe of mountaineers, *Kharond*, and *Makrâi*.

This province is called *Gondwâna*, as being the residence of the Gônds (or Khônds, who are nearly identical), an ancient race, of simple habits, though some of their tribes have been guilty of offering human sacrifices. (Ch. x. § 133.)

Râjpût

Râjpûtâna. This immense region stretches from 23° to 20°, north latitude, and from 69° 30′ to 78° 15′, east longitude, and contains an area of 123,000 square miles, with a population of about 10,000,000. It consists of twenty provinces, of which two, viz., Âjmîr and Mairwara, are British territories, while the other eighteen states are independent, under British protection, with a political agent immediately under the Governor-General. (Comp. § 36.)

These are under the N.W. Provinces. § 9.

§ 14. (7) Mysôr (Maisûr) is under a Chief Commissioner, and though geographically within the limits of the Madras Presidency, is directly subject to the Bengal Government.

Mysôr. Comp. Map. Chap. xii. § 1.

In regard to military matters Mysôr is under Madras.

The following are the divisions of Mysôr:—

Divisions. { I. Nandidrûg, II. Ashtagrâm, III. and Nagar.

The population is nearly 4,000,000. (See ch. xii.)

Kûrg. The district of Kûrg (Coorg) is under the Mysôr Government. Its length is about 60 miles, and its breadth about 40. It lies on the summit and slopes of the Western Ghâts, on the south-east of Mysôr. Its chief town is Markâra.

Here the Kâvêri rises.

Coffee is cultivated with success in this district.

The population is about 113,000; of whom 30,000 are of the Kodaga or ancient Kûrg tribe.

Birma. § 15. (8) The British Possessions in Birma. Population 2,300,000. This comprises all the maritime districts on the east side of the Bay of Bengâl. They consist of *Arakân*, *Pegu*, and the *Tenasserim* provinces. (Comp. ch. x. § 79, 140.)

See Map.

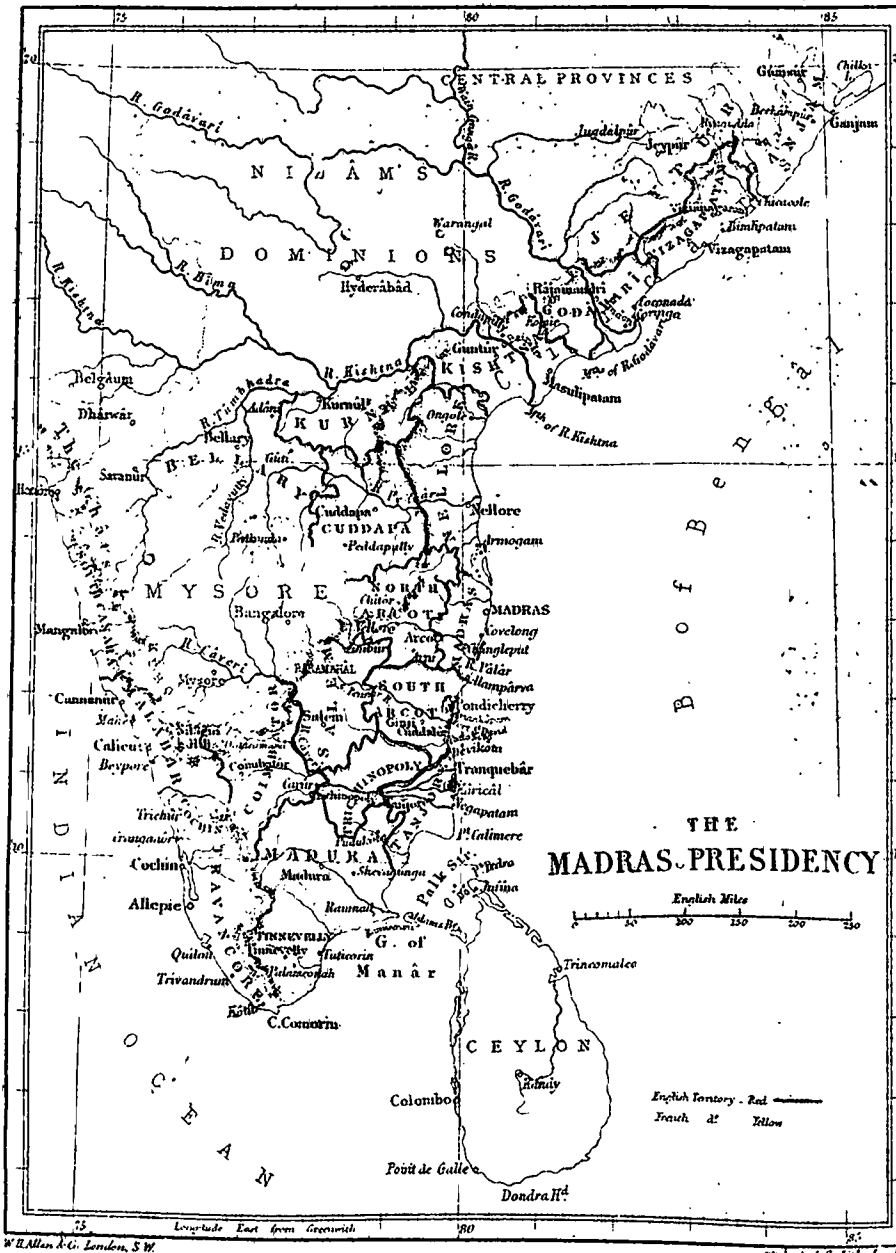
British Birma (Burmah). The following is a table of the Commissionerships and Divisions of British *Birma*:—

Divisions.	Districts.	Divisions.	Districts.
I. Pegu.	1 Rangoon. 2 Bassein. 3 Myanoung. 4 Prome. 5 Tongû.	II. Tenasserim.	6 Amherst. 7 Tavoy. 8 Mergui. 9 Shoaygheen.
		III. Arakân.	10 Akyâb.

The population is about 2,500,000.

Madras Presidency. § 16. (II.) The Madras Presidency. (See map.) Population 26,500,000.

BRITISH BIRMA,
&c.
English Miles
0 50 100 200 300
Silhet
Tipperah
Dacca
Calcutta
Mths of the Ganges
Munnipur
Tropic of Cancer
R. Irawady
BIRMA
Umerapura
Pagahn
Arakan
Akyab
Mellun
Patanagoh
Ramri I.
Cheduba I.
Sandowy
Tongu
Prome
R. Sitang
R. Salwin
Shoogheen
PEGU
Pegu
Sitang
Bassein
Rangoon
Moulmein
C. Negrais
Negrais I.
Mths of the Irawady
G. of Martaban
Amherst
Yeh
TENASSERIM
Tavoy
R. Meinam
SIAM
Bankok
B. of Bengâl
Port Cornwallis
Great Andaman
Andaman Is.
Port Blair
Little Andaman
Mergui
Tenasserim
Mergui Archipelago
G. of Siam
C. Camboja
Tantalam I.
Nicobâr Is.
Junkceylon
Malaya
Str. of Malacca
Penang or Pr. of Wales I.
Wellesley Province
Sumatra
Malacca
Singapore
Longitude East from Greenwich
Wd Allen & Co. London, S.W.
Witherby & Co. Lithe London


THE
MADRAS PRESIDENCY
English Miles
0 50 100 150 200 250
English Territory - Red
French do Yellow
CENTRAL PROVINCES
NIZÂM'S
DOMINIONS
MYSORE
MADRAS
CUDDAPA
KURNUL
BELLARY
NORTH ARCOT
SOUTH ARCOT
TRICHINOPOLY
MADURA
TINNEVELLY
TRAVANCORE
COIMBATOR
CEYLON
INDIAN OCEAN
Bay of Bengal
Gulf of Manâr
Palk Str.
Hyderâbâd
Warangal
Jugdalpur
Jeypur
Vizagapatam
Masulipatam
Nellore
Bangalore
Mangalore
Cannanur
Calicut
Beypore
Cochin
Allepie
Trivandrum
Quilon
Tuticorin
Palamcottah
C. Comorin
Colombo
Point de Galle
Dondra Hd.
Trincomalee
Kandy
Pondicherry
Tranquebâr
Kâricâl
Negapatam
Pt. Calimere
Pedro
Jaffna
Arcot
Chitôr
Vellore
Cuddapa
Peddapally
Kurnûl
Ongole
Guntur
Rajamandri
Coconada
Koringa
Gumsur
Ganjam
Chilka
Bimlipatam
Chicacole
Belgâum
Dhârwâr
Saranur
Bellary
Adôni
Gûti
Mysore
Salem
Coimbatore
Madura
Raumad
Tinnevelly
Kôtâ
Trichinopoly
Tanjore
Kurnûl
Cuddapa
Nellore
Ongole
Masulipatam
Mts. of R. Godâvari
Mts. of R. Kishtna
R. Godâvari
R. Kishtna
R. Tumbhadra
R. Bîma
R. Kishtna
R. Godâvari
R. Vedavati
R. Câveri
Longitude East from Greenwich
75
80
85
W. H. Allen & Co. London, S.W.
Witherby & Co. Litho. London

The Madras Presidency.

This includes twenty Collectorates. Within its limits are the protected states of—

(i.) TRAVANCORE. Population 1,000,000. (Comp. ch. x. § 61.) Protected states.

(ii.) COCHIN. Population 300,000. (Ch. x. § 64.)

(iii.) VIZIANAGARAM and JEYPÛR. These are both in the Vizagapatam district.

Vizianagaram is under a Mahârâja, Gajapata Râz. It contains eleven Tâlûks, and a population of 570,000.

Jeypûr is in the hills, forming the Eastern Ghâts. Here are found the Khônds, Kols, and Savars. (Ch. x. § 133.) Its population is about 400,000. Or, *Kandhs.*

(iv.) PUDUKÔTA. Population 60,000.

The Râja is often called the Tondimân Râja. His estates have been guaranteed to him as a reward for services rendered by his ancestors during the wars in the Carnatic.

The following are the Collectorates of MADRAS. There is but one Commissionership:—

DISTRICTS.	DISTRICTS.
1 Madras City.	12 South Arcot (Cuddalôr).
2 Ganjam (Chitterpore).	13 Tanjore.
3 Vizagapatam.	14 Trichinopoly.
4 Godâvarî (Coconâda, Râjamandrî).	15 Madura.
5 Kishtna (Masulipatam, Guntûr).	16 Tinnevelly (Palamcottah).
6 Nellore.	17 Coimbatôr.
7 Cuddapa (*Kadapa*).	18 Salem.
8 Bellary (*Ballârî*).	19 South Canara (Mangalore).
9 Kurnûl.	20 Malabâr (Calicut, Cannanûr, Tellichêri).
10 Madras (Chingleput).	21 The Nîlagiri Plateau. (Undera Commissioner.) (Ootacamund.)
11 North Arcot (Chittûr, Arcot).	

The area is a little more than that of Great Britain with Ireland.

French Settlements. Ch. vii. § 7; viii. § 31. Ch. vii. § 7; xii. § 25. Ch. vii. § 7. Ch. vii. § 7; ix. § 8.

§ 17. There are also the French settlements of—
(i.) *Pondicherry*, on the Coromandel coast;
(ii.) *Mahé*, on the Malabâr coast;
(iii.) *Kâricâl*, on the Coromandel coast;
(iv.) *Chandernagôr*, on the Hûglî; and
(v.) *Yanâon* (Yanam) on the Orissa coast, 6 miles from Coringa, on the Godâvarî. They have a total population of about 229,000.

The Bombay Presidency.

§ 18. (III.) The BOMBAY PRESIDENCY. (See map.) This includes twenty-one Collectorates. Within its limits are,

Protected states. Ch. v. § 122. Ch. v. § 47. Katch.

(i.) The Gaekwâr of Barôda. Population 330,000.
(ii.) The four Kolhâpûr Râjas. Population 500,000.
(ii.) The Râo of Katch. Population 500,000.

Comp. ch. v. § 122.

NOTE.—KATCH is governed by a Râo and chiefs whose tribe name is Jharejas. It came fully under the subsidiary system in 1819. There has been great difficulty in repressing female infanticide there. The most populous town is *Mandavî*.

Gujarât.

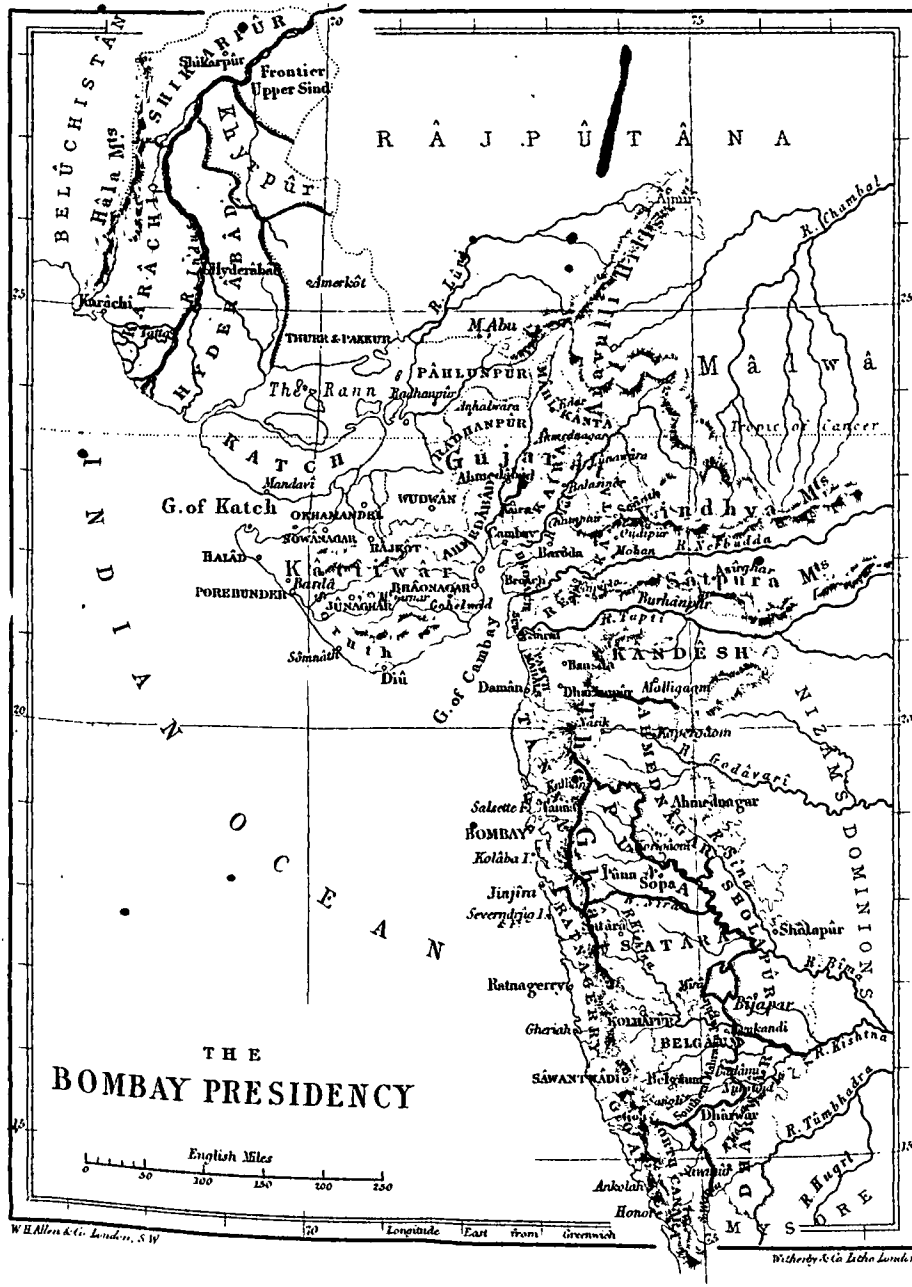
(iv.) The petty states of Gujarât. Population 400,000.

Among these are—
1. Pâhlunpûr, Radhanpûr, and many petty states around.
2. The *Mâhî-Kânta*, divided among many petty chiefs, of which the Râja of Edar and Ahmednagar is the chief.
Its area is 4,000 square miles.
3. The *Rêwa Kânta*. Here is the Râja of Râjpîpla.
Lesser chiefs are those of Dêoghar Bâria, Mohan, Lunâwâra, Sonâth, Bâlasinôr, and others.
"This beautiful province for hundreds of miles may vie with the finest parks in England, covered with verdure and the most luxurious vegetation."

Kâthiwâr.

(v.) The petty states of Kâthiwâr. Population 1,500,000.

NOTE.—A large portion of the *Kâthiwâr* peninsula belongs to the Gaekwâr of Barôda. But there are several chiefs who hold



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Witherby & Co. Lecho London.

their territories directly as feudatories of the British Government. These are the chiefs of—

1. Jûnaghar.	4. Porebunder.
2. Nowânagar.	5. Wudwar; and
3. Bhâonagar.	6. Râjkot.

To the first three the right of adoption has been conceded. (§ 24.)

(vi.) The Satârâ Jâgîrs. (Ch. v. § 166.)

(vii.) Sâwant-Wâdî. Population 120,000. Or, *Wárí.*

(viii.) Southern Mahratta Jâgîrs. Population 420,000.

These are—

Jamkandî.	Nargund.
Kunwâr.	Sanglî.
Mîrâj.	Savanûr; and
Mûdhôl.	Shedbâd.

The following is a list of the Commissionerships and Collectorates of the BOMBAY PRESIDENCY. (See map.)

DIVISIONS.	DISTRICTS.	DIVISIONS.	DISTRICTS.	DIVISIONS.	DISTRICTS.
I. NORTHERN COMMISSIONERSHIP.	1 Bombay Island. 2 Ahmedâbâd. 3 Kaira. 4 Panch Mahâls. 5 Broach. 6 Sûrat. 7 Tanna. 8 Khândêsh.	II. SOUTHERN COMMISSIONERSHIP.	9 Pûna. 10 Ahmednagar. 11 Sholapûr. 12 Ratnagerry. 13 Belgâum. 14 Dharwâr. 15 North Canara. 16 Satârâ.	III. SIND COMMISSIONERSHIP.	17 Karâchi (Westerly Mouth of the Indus). 18 Hyderâbâd (On the Fulali Branch of the Indus). 19 Shikarpûr (Very populous). 20 Frontier Upper Sind. 21 Thurr and Parkur.

The population is about 13,000,000. The area slightly exceeds that of the Madras Presidency.

Here the chief languages are the *Marâṭhî* and the *Gujarâtî*.

§ 19. There is also the Island of *Goa*, which, with a small tract of surrounding country, and the towns of *Diû* and *Damân*, are the sole remainder of the vast Portuguese dominion in the East. The population of this feeble remnant of "Portuguese India" is about 500,000. Portuguese India. Comp. Ch. vi.

Berâr. See map of Nizâms territories.

§ 20. Berâr is managed by the British Resident of Hyderâbâd for the Nizâm. Cultivation is rapidly on the increase.

Divisions.
I. Oomrawutty (Amravatí).
II. Akôla.
III. Mekhur (Maiker).
IV. Woon.

Its population is one million and a half. (Comp. ch. iii. § 16 [13].)

It is a little larger than Denmark.

Of this district, as of the whole territory of the Nizâm, Hindûstâní may almost be regarded as the vernacular language.

Straits Settlements.

§ 21. There are besides these the "Straits Settlements," of which there are three—Singapore, Penang, and Malacca. These were transferred to the English Colonial Office in 1866; and with them the history of India is no further concerned. (Comp. ch. vi. § 13, 20; ch. x. § 82.)

Ceylon.

§ 22. Ceylon does not fall within our subject, being a British Crown colony, having no political connection with Peninsular India. A slight sketch of its history and geography will be found in § 37.

Progress of British power.

§ 23. Chapters vii., viii., and ix. will show how rapid and how wonderful in every way has been the attainment by Great Britain of this dominion.

We subjoin a table, giving the date of the acquisition of each portion of the Indian Empire :—

1	Madras (with five miles round)	1639	Ch. vii. § 6, l.
2	Bombay ...	1669	Given by Portugal to Charles II. in 1661. Ch. vii. § 6, q.
3	Fort St. David ...	1691	Ch. viii. § 6.
4	Calcutta and villages around	1696	Ch. vii. § 6, r.
5	The Twenty-four Pergunnahs	1757	From Mir Jaffîr. Ch. ix. § 11.

6	Masulipatam and surrounding country ...	1758	From the Nizâm. Ch. ix. § 14.
7	Burdwân, Midnâpûr, and Chittagong ...	1760	From Mîr Kâsim. Ch. ix. § 16.
8	Bengâl, Bahâr, and Orissa ...	1764	From Shâh Âlam II. Ch. ix. § 28.
9	The Five Northern Circârs ...	1764	From Shâh Alam II. Ch. iii. § 16.
10	Chingleput (round Madras) ...	1765	From the Nuwâb of the Carnatic.
11	Guntûr ...	1788	From the Nizâm of Hyderâbâd. Ch. x. § 21.
12	Baramahâl (Salem) ...	1792	From Tippû. Sir T. Munro.
13	Dindigal ...	1792	Do. Do. Ch. x. § 22.
14	Malabâr ...	1792	Do. Do.
15	Kanara, Coimbatôr, Wynaad, and the Nîlagiri Hills ...	1799	After Tippû's fall. Ch. x. § 42; xii. § 56.
16	Ceded districts of Hyderâbâd	1800	The Nizâm, for subsidiary force. Ch. iii. § 16.
17	Tanjôr ...	1800	By consent. Ch. x. § 44.
18	Furruckâbâd ...	1801	Ch. x. § 39.
19	Ceded Districts of Oudh ...	1801	Do.
20	The Carnatic ...	1801	For debts. Ch. x. § 44.
21	Kuttack ...	1803	Conquest. Ch. v. § 134.
22	Delhi, Agra, Bandêlkhand ...	1803	Lord Lake's conquests. Ch. v. § 135.
23	Cessions from Nipâl ...	1815	Ch. x. § 74.
24	Pûna and Tracts of Mahratta territory ...	1818	Ch. v. § 165.
25	Arakân, &c. ...	1824	Ch. v. § 79.
26	Cachâr ...	1832	Lapsed. Since famous for tea-plantations.
27	Assâm ...	1833 / 1839	Lapsed.
28	Kûrg ...	1834	Ch. x. § 90.
29	Bûtân (the Dûars) ...	1841	Taken in consequence of aggressions.
30	Kurnûl ...	1841	Treason in the Nuwâb. Ch. x. § 112.
31	The Cis-Satlaj States ...	1813	
32	Sind ...	1813	Ch. x. § 125.
32	The Jullindhur Doâb (Panjâb)	1845	Ch. xi. § 34.
34	The Panjâb ...	1848	Ch. xi. § 44.
35	Pegu ...	1852	Ch. x. § 140.
36	Tula Râm's Hill Districts of Cachâr ...	1853	Lapsed.
37	Berâr ...	1853	Ch. iii. § 16 (13).
38	Nâgpûr ...	1854	Ch. x. § 144.
39	Jhânsî ...	1854	Ch. x. § 147.

33	Kambay Nuwâb ...	Gujarât.
34	Kashmîr Mahârâja ...	Sikh. Ch. x. § 7.
35	Churkarî Râja ...	Bandêlkhand. C.I. Agency. § 12.
36	Chamba Chief ...	Trans-Satlaj State. Panjâb. § 10.
37	Chatterpûr Râja ...	Bandêlkhand. C.I. Agency. § 12.
38	Cochin Râja ...	Hindû. § 16; ch. x. § 64.
39	Cooch Bihâr Râja ...	E. Bengâl.
40–54	Sixteen Chiefs, Tributary Mehâls ...	Cuttack.
55	Dêwas Chief (Pûar Râja) ...	Mâlwah. C.I. Agency. § 12.
56	Dhâr Chief, Râja ...	Mâlwah. C.I. Agency. § 12.
57	Dhamî Chief ...	Hill State. Panjâb.
58	Dholapûr Râna (Gôhud) ...	Jât. § 26; ch. v. § 137.
59	Dhurwiji Chief (Jaghîrdar) ...	Bandêlkhand. § 12.
60	Dôjana Nuwâb ...	North-Western Provinces. Delhi.
61	Durkôti Chief (Thâkûr) ...	Hill State. Panjâb.
62	Dharampûr Chief ...	Gujarât.
63	Dungarpûr Chief ...	Râjpûtâna. § 36.
64	Duflêkâr of Jât ...	Mahratta. Ch. v. § 166.
65	Duttîa Râja ...	Bandêlkhand. C.I. Agency. § 12.
66	Edar Chief (Thâkûr) ...	Gujarât. Mâhî-Kânta. Bombay. § 18.
67	Furrîdkôt Râja ...	Cis-Satlaj State. Panjâb.
68	Gerouli Jaghîrdâr ...	Bandêlkhand. § 12.
69	Gurhwâl Râja ...	N. W. Himâlayas. Faithful in the mutinies. Introd. § 9.
70	Gaekwâr of Barôda ...	Mahratta. § 18; ch. v. § 122, 89.
71	Gôrihâr Jaghîrdâr ...	Bandêlkhand. § 12.
72	Holkâr Mahârâja ...	Mahratta. § 12; ch. v. § 160, 75.
73	Haiderâbâd Nizâm ...	Muhammedan. Ch. iii.
74	Jeisalmîr Chief ...	Râjpûtâna. § 36.
75	Jeypûr Mahârâja ...	Râjpûtâna. § 36; ch. x. § 102; v. § 163.
76	Jhînd Râja ...	Cis-Satlaj State. Panjâb. Ch. xi. § 9.
77	Jhallâwar Râna ...	Râjpûtâna. § 36.
78	Jignî Jaghîrdâr ...	Bandêlkhand. § 12.
79	Joobul Chief ...	Hill States. Panjâb.
80	Jûnaghar Nuwâb ...	Kâttiwâr. Gujarât. § 18.
81	Jôdhpûr Chief ...	Râjpûtâna. § 36; ch. x. § 102; v. § 163.
82	Jowra Nuwâb ...	Central India Agency. Mâlwâ.
83	Jussû Jaghîrdâr ...	Bandêlkhand. § 12.
84	Karond Râja ...	Central Provinces.
85	Keonthul Chief ...	Hill States. Panjâb.
86	Kerowlî Chief ...	Râjpûtâna. § 36.
87	Kishnagar Chief ...	Râjpûtâna. § 36.
88	Khulsia Chief ...	Cis-Satlaj State. Panjâb.

89	Kolhâpûr Râja	...	Mahratta. § 18; ch. v. § 47.
90	Koomharsein Chief	...	Hill State. Panjâb.
91	Koonhiâr Chief	...	Hill State. Panjâb.
92	Kota Chief	...	Râjpûtâna. § 36.
93	Kothar Chief	...	Hill State. Panjâb.
94	Kothî Jaghîrdâr	...	Bandêlkhand. § 12.
95	Kunnya Dhâna Jaghîrdâr	...	Bandêlkhand. § 12.
96	Kapurthala Râja	...	Sîkh Protected. Trans-Satlaj. § 10.
97	Katch Râo (Cutch)	...	Mahratta. § 18.
98	Logassi Jaghîrdâr	...	Bandêlkhand. § 12.
99	Loharoo Nuwâb	...	North-Western Provinces. Delhi.
100	Makrâi Chief	...	Central Provinces.
101	Malleir-Kotla Nuwâb	...	Cis-Satlaj State. Panjâb.
102	Mûdhôl Chief	...	Bombay. Southern Mahratta.
103	Mandî Chief	...	Trans-Satlaj. Panjâb. § 10.
104	Mungal Chief	...	Hill State. Panjâb.
105	Myhere Chief	...	Bandêlkhand. § 12.
106	Mylôg Chief	...	Hill State. Panjâb.
107	Mysore Mahârâja	...	Chapter xii.
108	Nabha Râja	...	Cis-Satlaj State. Panjâb. Ch. xi. § 9.
109	Nagôde Chief (Oocheyra)	...	Bandêlkhand. § 12.
110	Nahun Chief (Sirmûr)	...	Hill State. Panjâb.
111	Nalaghar Chief (Hindôr)	...	Hill State. Panjâb.
112	Nambalkur of Phultun	...	Mahratta. Ch. v. § 166.
113	Nowânagar Chief	...	Kâttiwâr Peninsula. § 18.
114	Nyagâon Rebai Jaghîrdâr	...	Bandêlkhand. C.I. Agency. § 12.
115	Oudipûr Mahârâja (Mêwâr)		Râjpûtâna. § 36; ch. x. § 102.
116	Paharî Chief	...	Bandêlkhand.
117	Patowdî Nuwâb	...	North-Western Provinces. Delhi.
118	Pâhlunpûr Râja	...	Gujarât. Bombay. § 18.
119	Pudukôta Chief	...	Hindû. Carnatic. Madras P. § 16.
120	Punna Râja	...	Bandêlkhand. C.I. Agency. § 12.
121	Pant Prithi Nîdhi	...	Mahratta. Ch. v. § 166. Bombay P.
122	Pant Suchêo (Pûna Collte)	...	Mahratta. Ch. v. § 166. Bombay P.
123	Pratabghar Râja	...	Râjpûtâna. § 36. R. Agency.
124	Five Putwurdhuns	...	Mahratta. Ch. v. § 166. Bombay P.
125	Pattiâla Mahârâja	...	Protected Sîkh State between Jamna and Satlaj. Ch. x. § 8.
126	Radhanpûr Nuwâb	...	Gujarât. Bombay Presidency.
127	Râjpîpla Chief	...	Between Kândêsh and Gujarât. Bombay Presidency. § 18.
128	Râmdrûg Chief	...	Bombay.
129	Râmpûr Nuwâb	...	Rohilkhand. The descendant of the Rohillas. Ch. ix. § 26.

130	Rêwa Râja ...	Bandêlkhand. § 12.
131	Sâwant-Wâdî Chief ...	Mahratta. Ch. v. § 166.
132	Sirôhî Chief ...	Râjpûtâna. § 36.
133	Shâhpûra Râja (Intro. § 9.)	North-Western Provinces, a Râjpût descended from Surâj Mnl. Ch. iii. § 20.
134	Sindia Mahârâja ...	Mahratta. Ch. v. § 45.
135	Sohâwul Chief ...	Bandêlkhand. § 12.
136	Sukhêt Chief ...	North Bank of the Satlaj. Sîkh. § 10.
137	Sucheen Nuwâb ...	Near Sûrat. Gujarât.
138	Sundûr Chief ...	Ceded Districts. Ch. x. § 40.
139	Sumptur Râja ...	Bandêlkhand. C.I. Agency. § 12.
140	Sirdâr Shamshîr, Sindhanwâla Sing ...	Sîkh. Panjâb. § 10.
141	Surîla Chief ...	Bandêlkhand. § 12.
142	Tehrî Chief (Oorcha), and Husht Bhya Jaghîrdârs (4)	Bandêlkhand. § 12.
143	Têj Sing ...	Sîkh. Panjâb. § 10.
144	Tonk (Tank) Nuwâb ...	Râjpûtâna. § 36; ch. v. § 153.
145	Toree Chief ...	Râjpûtâna. § 36; ch. v. § 153.
146	Travancore Mahârâja ...	Hindû. § 16; ch. x. § 61.
147	Turoch Chief ...	Hill State. Panjâb.
148	Ulwar Chief (Machêri) ...	Râjpûtâna. § 36.

§ 25. The following table exhibits twelve of the chief FEUDATORY STATES:— Twelve chief states.

		Square Miles.	Population.	Annual Income.
1	Nizâm of Haidarâbâd ...	95,337	10,666,080	£1,650,000
2	Mahârâja Sindia, of Gwâliâr ...	.....	2,500,000	1,110,910
3	Gaekwâr of Barôda ...	4,399	1,710,404	600,000
4	Mahârâja of Jeypûr ...	15,250	1,900,000	500,000
5	Mahârâja of Travancore ...	6,653	1,262,647	448,063
6	Mahârâja of Kashmîr ...	25,000	700,000	400,000
7	Mahârâja of Jôdhpûr ...	35,672	1,783,600	350,000
8	Mahârâja Holkâr ...	8,318	576,000	330,000
9	Mahârâja of Pattiâla ...	5,412	1,586,000	300,000
10	Mahârâja of Oudipûr ...	11,614	1,161,140	266,127
11	Mahârâja of Bhartpûr ...	1,974	743,710	263,692
12	Begum of Bhôpâl ...	6,764	663,656	240,000
	Total ...	.....	.....	6,458,792

INTRODUCTION.

PART II.—SKETCH OF THE GENERAL GEOGRAPHY OF INDIA.

§ 26. After this brief survey of the political relations of Great Britain to this country, we may proceed to a somewhat closer examination of the general geography of India.

India. (I.) INDIA, in its widest acceptation, includes both the great peninsulas separated by the Bay of Bengâl. It is divided into—

Further India. (Ch. x. § 79, 82.) (i.) FURTHER-INDIA, or India beyond the Ganges, consisting of the Indo-Chinese peninsula, and the islands of the great Indian Archipelago.

Hither India. (ii.) HITHER INDIA, or India within the Ganges: Hindûstân, and the Dakhan.

§ 27. This latter territory is divided into—

Himâlayan region. § 33. [1.] The *Himâlayan region*, occupying the slopes and valleys between the various ranges of those sublime mountains.

Hill districts. Here are the districts of—(1) Assam, (2) Bhutân, (3) Sikhim, (4) Nepâl, (5) Kumaôn, (6) Gurhwâl, (7) Sirmûr, and (8) the famed valley of Kashmîr. See sketch map, page 1.)

North-Western India. INTRO. § 28-30.

Along the southern boundary of Nepâl is the Terâi or Tariyânî, a long narrow belt of low land, covered with jungle and very deadly. [Ch. x. § 181.]

Among the hills and valleys of this region are found the aboriginal tribes (of uncertain origin) called *Bodo, Kocch, Dhimal, Uâro, Kachâri, Lepcha, Lhopa, Kiranti,* and many others.

§ 28. [2.] The great plain extending from the Brahmaputra to the Indus, and from the Himâlaya mountains to the high tableland of the Southern peninsula. This includes—(1) Bengâl; (2) Bihâr; (3) parts of Orissa; (4) Oudh; the ancient provinces of (5) Allâhâbâd; (6) Agra; (7) Delhi; (8) the Panjâb; and (9) part of Sind. The great northern plain. Compare § 8, 9. 10, 11.

This region is watered by the Brahmaputra, the Ganges, the Jamna, and the Indus, with their numerous and important tributaries. (See sketch map.) Rivers. § 34.

This was anciently divided into *Hindûstân* and *Pûrb*.
From Allâhâbâd eastward was the *Pûrb* or *front* land. Hence the kings of Bengâl were sometimes called *Pûrbias*.

§ 29. [3.] The desert between the Arâvalli hills and the Indus, comprising portions of Râjpûtâna and Sind. This belongs to the great plain, but differs from it in physical character, being for the most part barren. (See map). The North-Western desert. § 36.

§ 30. [4.] The Dakhan or Southern Peninsula. This is a vast table-land, possessing an average elevation of 2,000 feet above the level of the sea. (Ch. iv.) The Dakhan.

Its northern border consists of the Vindhya chain (from 2,000 to 3,000 feet high), a tract of high country from the border of Gujarât to the Ganges, between the 23d and 25th parallels of north latitude. Its boundaries.

There is the Vindhya chain; at its base flows the Nerbudda; south of it is the Sâthpurâ range, and then The fourfold boundary.

the Taptî, completing the "*fourfold girdle round the waist of India.*"

The Eastern and Western Ghâts.

§ 31. From the extremities of this transverse boundary two chains called the Western and Eastern Ghâts run to the south, and join at the Nîlagiri table-land (in north latitude 11°), whose highest peak is 8,760 feet. (See sketch map.)

The Coasts on the west and east.

§ 32. [5.] The lower land between the Eastern and Western Ghâts, and the sea on either hand. This belongs to the Dakhan, but historically must be considered apart from it.

Northern Sirkârs. (Ch. iii. § 16.)

a. From the mouth of the Mahânadî to the Krishṇa are the *Northern Sirkârs.*

Carnatic. (Ch. vii. viii.)

b. The region between the Krishṇa, the Eastern Ghâts, and the Ghâts after their union at the Nîlagiris to Cape Comorin, is the Carnatic, sometimes divided into northern, central, and southern. The name is a mistake, a mere corruption of *Karnâtaka* (the Kanarese country), with which it has really no connection.

Western coast. (Ch. v. vi. xii. x. § 61.)

c. The narrower district between the Western Ghâts and the sea is divided into—(a) the Konkan, (b) Goa, (c) Kanara, (d) Malabâr, and (e) Travancore with Cochin. This is the region connected with the names of Sivajî, Albuquerque, Hyder, and Tippû. Its harbours have been visited by ships from all the mercantile regions of the earth.

Some slight notice of necessary geographical particulars is given as each district is mentioned in the history.

Mountains.

§ 33. We may now take a separate survey of the mountains of India.

The Himâlayas.

(I.) The *Himâlaya* range (=abode of snow), the escarpment of the plateau of Central Asia. This is the highest chain in the world. North of Afghânistân it is

called the Hindû Koosh. The northern is the Kailâsa range. The highest peaks are—

(1.) Nanda Dêvî in Kumaôn	25,749 feet.	[These numbers are variously stated.]
(2.) Dhavala-Giri in Nipâl	26,861 „	
(Here the *Gunduk* rises. § 34.)		
(3.) Mount Everest, Nipâl	31,000 „	
(4.) Kunchinganga „	28,620 „	
(5.) Jumouri „	25,500 „	
(6.) Chimalarî „	23,944 „	

This chain has forty peaks exceeding Chimborazo in height (21,424 feet).

(II.) The *Vindhya* mountains. These extend through Bihâr, Allâhâbâd, and Mâlwah, along the north bank of the Nerbudda, to the neighbourhood of Broach. They nowhere exceed 6,000 feet in height. The Vindhyas.

(III.) The *Western Ghâts*, extending from the Taptî to Cape Comorin. (Comp. ch. v. § 4.) Western Ghâts.

The Bhôr Ghât is the pass that leads from Bombay to Pûna. The Great Indian Peninsula railway ascends this Ghât by an incline whose ascent is 1,831 feet.

The Palni hills, near Madura, are an offshoot of these. (Parani.)

(IV.) The *Eastern Ghâts* extend, but not continuously, from Orissa to the Nîlagiri plateau, where they join the *Western Ghâts*. One of the highest peaks in Southern India is Dodda-betta (=*big-hill*), on the Nîlagiris, which is 8,760 feet high. Eastern Ghâts.

To the south of these, about sixty miles distant, are the *Animalli* hills (Ânai-malai=*Elephant hill*), which are almost unexplored. Here is a peak about 9,000 feet high.

On the N.W., between the Nîlagiris and Mysôr, is the valley of Wynaad (Wainâd), celebrated for its coffee plantations.

(V.) The *Sulaimân*, with the *Hâla* mountains, run from north to south, dividing India from Afghânistân and Belûchistân. The highest peak, Takht-i-Sulaimân, is 11,000 feet high. Sulaimân and Hâla mountains. (=Solomon's *Throne*.)

The Sâthpurâ range. (Ch. v. § 2.)

(VI.) The *Sâthpurâ* hills divide the basins of the Nerbudda and the Tâptî.

They are called also the *Injâdrî* mountains.

Aravullis. (Comp. § 36.)

(VII.) The *Arâvalli* mountains cross Râjpûtâna from south-west to north-east.

Sewâlik hills.

(VIII.) The *Sewâlik* hills, a sub-Himâlayan range, between Sirmûr and Gurhwâl.

Râjmahâl hills.

(IX.) The *Râjmahâl* hills are to the north of Mûrshedâbâd, at the bend of the Ganges, southward, dividing "the lofty plateau of Central India from the valley of the Ganges."

The Garrows.

(X.) The *Garrows* are to the east of the Brahmaputra, where it takes its great southern bend.

The Shevaroys. (Siva-râya.)

(XI.) Near to Salem, in the Carnatic, are the Shevaroy hills, the highest point being 5,000 feet.

RIVER SYSTEM.

§ 34. The river system of India consists of the following:—

The Brahmaputra.

(1.) The *Brahmaputra*. This rises in Tibet, flows due east, under the name of the Tsanpu, skirting the Himâlayas, then west, and south-west, and south, through Assam and Eastern Bengâl; where, near Dacca, it is joined by many streams, and takes the name of Mêgna. Then, joining the Ganges, and many smaller rivers, it rushes with a mighty tide into the Bay of Bengâl.

The Ganges and its tributaries.

(2.) The *Ganges* and its tributaries. The various streams that form the *Ganges*, and its great branch, the *Jamna*, rise beyond the Himâlayas. These unite at *Allâhâbâd*, to which place steamers ascend.

The Bhâgîratî and Alcananda, which rise in Gurhwâl, unite at *Dêvaprayâga*, and form the Ganges.

Tributaries of the Ganges:—

a. On the north:—1, the N. Bhâgîratî; 2, the Râm Gangâ; 3, the Tîsta; 4, the Gûmtî; 5, the Gôgrâ; 6, the Gunduk (or *Sâlagrâmî*); 7, the Kôsî.

The *Raptî* is a tributary of the *Gôgrâ*.

b. On the south :—1, the Sône; 2, the Hûglî; 3, the Damûda; 4, the Kûsî.

The Hûglî is the name given to the S. Bhâgîratî after it is increased by some smaller streams.

Tributaries of the Jamna :— The Jamna, or Jumna.

On the south :—1, the Chambal (§ 36); 2, the Sind; 3, the Betwa; 4, the Kên; and 5, the Tons.

The *Banas* is a tributary of the Chambal, as are the *Parbatî*, the *Kâlî Sind*, and the *Sipra*.

(3.) The *Indus* and its tributaries. The Indus rises in Tibet in the Kailâsa, or northern range of the Himâlayas, near the sources of the Satlaj, and not far from those of the Ganges. It flows north-west, skirting Kashmîr; then enters the Panjâb to the east of the Mahaban peak; and so through Sind into the Arabian Sea. The Indus and its branches.

Tributaries :— Tributaries of the Indus.

The five rivers of the Panjâb are
1, the Kâbul.
2, the Jhîlam (Hydaspes); } which unite at Trimu Ghât;
3, the Chinâb (Acesines); } which unite at Ahmedpûr; [Comp ch. xi.]
4, the Ravî (Hydraotes); } All these join.
5, the Biâs (Hyphasis); } = Ghara.
6, the Satlaj.

(4.) The *Narbaddah* (Narmada=*softener*) rises in Gondwâna near the Sôn, at *Oomerkantak*, flows from east to west, and forms a part of the great division between Hindûstân and the Dakhan. The Narbaddah. [Nerbudda.]

(5.) The *Tâptî* rises in Gondwâna, and flows nearly The Tâpti.

Northern Pûrna.

east to the sea near Sûrat. The Northern *Pûrna* is its only tributary of importance.

The Mahânadi.

(6.) The *Mahânadi* (=*great river*) rises in Gondwâna; and after a winding course of 550 miles, flows, by many mouths, into the Bay of Bengâl, near Kattack.

Its only important tributary is the *Têl*.

The Godâvari.

(7.) The *Godâvarî* rises in the Western Ghâts, at Trimbak near Nâsik (about 53 miles from the Indian Ocean), and runs across the peninsula, in a generally south-east direction, to Râjamandrî and Coringa.

Tributaries of the Godâvari. (Ch. v. § 2.)

Its tributaries are:—

1, the Wain-Gangâ;
2, the Manjîra;
3, the Southern Pûrna;
4, the Pain-Gangâ;
5, the Northern Warda;
6, and the Indravatî.

(Wain=Vâna, *an arrow*=the arrow Ganges.)

NOTE.—The Dûdhna is a small tributary, on which stands Aurungâbâd.

The Kishtna. (Krishṇa= black.)

(8.) The Krishṇa [*Kishtna*] rises at Mahâbalêshwar, near *Satârâ*, and flows across the peninsula to near Masulipatam.

It is 800 miles long.

Tributaries of the Krishṇa. (Ch. xii. § 1.)

Its tributaries are:—

On the north,	On the south,
1, the Bhîma;	1, the Gutpûrba;
2, the Sîna;	2, the Malapûrba;
3, the Musî; (Haider-âbâd is on it.)	3, the Tûnga; = Tûm-
4, and the Nîma. (Ch. v. § 2.)	4, the Bhadra; bhadra.
	5, the S. Warda,
	6, and the Hugrî.

[Bhadra=*excellent.*] (Ch. v. § 15.)

NOTE.—1. Bhîma=*terrible.* It rises about 40 miles N. of Pûna, and passes within 15 miles of it.

2. The Sina rises 20 miles W.N.W. from Ahmednagar, and falls into the *Bhîma*.

(Ch. v. § 2.)

3. There are two small rivers called the Mûtâ and the Mûlâ, at the junction of which stands Pûna. These streams after their union fall into the Bhîma.

4. The Yêna rises near the Krishṇa, and joins it near Satâra.

The Pennâr.

(9.) The *Pennâr* rises near *Nandidrûg*, in Mysôr, north to Gûti, then east; divides the Northern and Central Carnatic; and falls into the Bay of Bengâl, near Nellôr.

The Pâlâr. = *Milk-river.*

(10.) The *Pâlâr* rises near the Pennâr; flows through Mysôr, and the Central Carnatic, past *Arcot* into the sea, near Sadras.

The Câvêri. (*Kâvêrî* or *Cauvery.*)

(11.) The *Câvêrî* (*Chaberis*) rises in Kûrg, flows through Mysôr, forms an island on which stands Seringapatam, divides Coimbatôr, from Salem; at Carûr, turns east, forms the island of Srîrangam, near Trichinopoly; thence is divided into two branches, of which the northern is called the Colleroon, and falls into the sea at Dêvikôta; while the other splits into many little streams, reaching the sea at Negapatam and Tranquebâr.

[Kolliḍam.] (Ch. xii. § 1.)

The Bhavânî (Bowânî), which rises in the Nîlagiris, is one of the tributaries of the Câvêrî. The Moyâr again is an affluent of the Bhavânî.

(12.) *Lesser rivers* are—

The Lûnî.

(*a.*) The *Lûnî* rises near Âjmîr, and falls into the Rann of Katch. This is a salt river.

The Banas (eastern).

(*b.*) The *Banas* rises in the Aravulli hills, and falls into the Rann of Katch.

The Mâi. (Ch. v. § 91.)

(*c.*) The *Mâi* rises in Mâlwah, near Mândû, and falls into the Gulf of Cambay.

The Vaigai.

(*d.*) The *Vaigai* rises in the Western Ghâts, and flows past *Madura* into the Gulf of Manâr near Râmnad.

The Tâmbarapûrnî.

(*e.*) The *Tâmbarapûrnî* rises in the Western Ghâts, and flows past *Palamcottah.*

The Punâr.

(*f*). The *Punâr* (or S. Pennâr) rises among the Nandidrûg hills, in Mysôr, and flows into the sea at Cuddalôr.

The Gundigâma.

(*g.*) The *Gundigâma*, which rises in the ceded districts, and divides the N. Carnatic from the N. Circârs.

The Sabmurîkâ. [Suvarnarekhâ = *streak of gold.*]

(*h.*) The *Sabmurîka* rises in Bihâr, and flows into the Bay of Bengâl near Balasôre.

The Brâhmanî.

(*i.*) The *Brâhmanî* (or Bahminî) flows into the Bay of Bengâl near the Mahânadî.

The Byturnî. [or Baitaranî.]

(*j.*) The *Byturnî* falls into the Bay of Bengâl near Pt. Palmyras.

§ 35. As certain parts of India will not come prominently and separately before us in the history, we give here a general sketch of their history and geography for reference.

These are—(1) Râjpûtâna, (2) Ceylon, (3) The lesser islands on the Indian coast.

Râjpûtâna.

§ 36. *Râjpûtâna.* (See Intro. I. § 13.)

A. This immense district is divided into twenty provinces or states.

Imperial possessions in Râjpûtâna.

Of these (1) Âjmîr and (2) Mairwarra are imperial possessions.

Eighteen are separate and independent states, under British protection.

They are—

I. Râjpût principalities:

(Ch. v. § 153.)

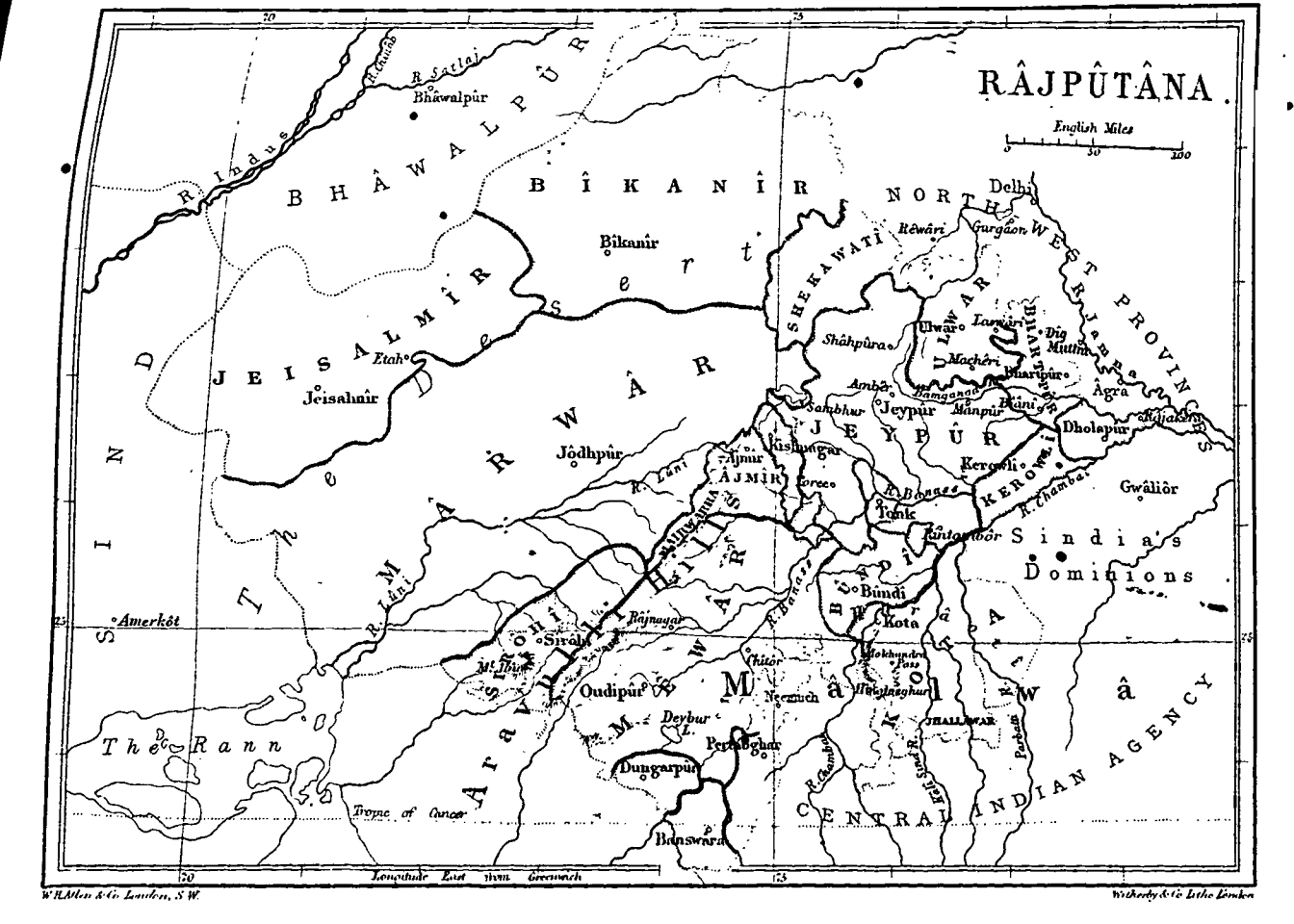
1. Mêwâr or Oudipûr, (Ch. iii. § 6);
2. Jeypûr;
3. Mârwâr or Jôdhpûr;
4. Bûndî, (Ch. v. § 136);
5. Bîkanîr;
6. Kôta;
7. Kerowlî;
8. Kishnagar;
9. Jeisalmîr;
10. Ulwar (*Machêri* or *Mêwât*).
11. Sirôhî; (In the S.W.)
12. Dungarpûr;
13. Banswâra;
14. Pratâbghar;
15. and Jhallâwar.

Mârwâr = *Sandy.*

II. Jât principalities:

Divisions of Râjpûtâna.

16. Bhartpûr, (Ch. v. § 137);
17. and Dholapûr or Gôhud. (Ch. v. § 137.)



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III. Muhammadan principality:

18. Tonk (or Tank.) (Ch. v. § 153.) Tonk.

Bûndî, Kôta, and Jhallâwar form the old district of *Harâotî.* To the N.E. of Mâlwâ.

B. Râjpûtâna is an irregular pentagon, bounded on the north and north-east by Bhâwalpûr, Hariâna, Gurgâon, Muttra, and Âgra; east by Sindia's territory; south by Holkâr's dominions, the Mâhî Kânta, the Rêwa Kânta, Palanpûr, and Gujarât; and west by Sind. Boundaries. (These are the old names for two districts lying to the S. of the Panjâb.)

C. The hills are— Hills of Râjpûtâna.

(*a*) The *Arâvalli* chain, running from north-east to south-west, dividing the province into two portions. This is the water-shed. The highest peak is Mount Abu, which is 5,800 feet above the level of the sea. Here is an asylum for soldiers' children, founded by the late Sir Henry Lawrence in 1854, when he was agent to the Governor-General in this province. In these hills the wild tribes of Bhîls and Grassias, who live by plunder, have their home. The Arâvallis. § 33. Mount Abu. Mountain tribes.

(*b.*) There are also sandstone hills in various parts of Râjpûtâna. On one of these stands *Jôdhpûr.* =Yuddhapûr= *City of war.*

(*c.*) The Mokhundra range, the pass through which was rendered memorable by *Monson's retreat.* (Ch. v. § 137.) It is in Harâotî. The Mokhundra Range.

D. *a.* The river *Chambal* rises between Mândû and Mhow, enters R. at Hingluzghur, separates Bûndî from Kota, and leaves Jeypûr, Kerowlî, and Dholapûr on the west, while Sindia's dominions skirt its eastern bank. It falls into the Jamna. Chambal. (The *Sambus* of Arrian.) § 34.

Its tributaries are—the (1) Kâlî Sind (Ahû, Newâj), (2) Parbatti, (3) Banas (western). Tributaries of the Chambal.

b. The Bâmganga, with its tributary the Gambhîr. This springs from the hills near Jeypûr, and flows through Bhartpûr into the Jamna.

c. The Dhûnd rises in Jeypûr. The Dhûnd.

The Lûnî.

d. The Lûnî. This is a salt river, issues from the Âjmîr lake, and falls into the Rann of Katch.

Lakes.

E. Splendid artificial lakes are found in this district. The finest are at Râjnagar, Sambhur, and Deybur.

F. The districts to the west and north-west of the Aravulli hills are mostly desert, with a few interspersed fertile spots. The eastern and central portions are more level, more fertile, and, consequently, more populous.

Ceylon.

§ 37. (2.) CEYLON is a large island about 150 miles from Cape Comorin.

From Point Pedro (9° 46′ north) to Dondra head (5° 56′ north) is about 270 miles. Its average breadth is about 100 miles. The highest peak of its inland mountains is 600 feet. It was originally under various chieftains, who were all subdued by the king of Candy; was then conquered by the Dutch (A.D. 1603–1656); from whom it was taken by the English in 1796. The latter conquered the whole island in 1819. Its proper name is *Singhâla*, from whence *Ceylon*. Its Sanskrit name is *Lankâ*. The Arabs call it *Serendib* (=Singhâla-dwîpa). The ancient Romans knew it by the name of *Taprobane* (=Dwîpa-Râvana, Râvaṇa's island). Râvaṇa (ch. i. § 6) seems to have governed not only Ceylon, but a considerable portion of Southern India. The inhabitants of this island are *Singhalese*, who speak a dialect of *Pâlî* allied to ancient Sanskrit; Tamilians from the Continent; Indo-Portuguese, and English. The Singhalese are mostly Buddhists.

History of Ceylon. (Ch. vii. § 4.)

(Ch. i. § 11.)

Vijaya (*Wijeya*), who led a colony of settlers from Magadha to Ceylon (perhaps) in the 6th century B.C., is said to have married the daughter of the Pâṇḍyan king of Madura. Ch. iv. § 5.

Towns in Ceylon.

Its chief towns are Jaffna, Colombo, Trincomalee, Point-de-Galle, and Candy. It is a Crown colony.

§ 38. The other lesser islands, connected more or less with India, are— Lesser islands connected with India.

A. The *Andamans* in the Bay of Bengâl; of which there are two, the greater and the lesser *Andaman*. The inhabitants are very degraded. These islands are used now as a penal settlement. Port Blair is the chief settlement. Port Cornwallis is on the east side of the Great Andaman. Barren Island is 50 miles east of the Great Andaman. The Andamans. Barren Island.

B. The *Nicobâr* Islands, in the Bay of Bengâl, are a group to the south of the former, whose inhabitants are very savage. A valuable species of cocoa-nut is brought from them. The Nicobârs.

C. The *Laccadives* (=100,000 islets), in the Arabian Sea, about 75 miles from the coast of Malabâr, were discovered by De Gâma in his first voyage. The inhabitants are Moplas. Coir (the cocoa-nut fibre) is exported from them to Cochin. These islands are now British territory; they belonged to the Bîbî of Cannanûr, and were annexed in 1803. The Laccadives.

D. The *Maldives* (=Malaya Islands), in the Arabian Sea, about 1,200 in number, divided into seventeen clusters called Attollons, are inhabited by Arab colonists, whose chief calls himself Sultân. These people speak Hindûstânî. The Maldives.

INTRODUCTION.

PART III.—ARRANGEMENT OF THE SUBJECT.

§ 39. The student of Indian history and geography may profitably begin by taking a general survey of the present political divisions and physical geography of the field which he is afterwards to examine more minutely. The introductory chapter enables him to do this. He will then notice—

FIRSTLY, *What has been stated with regard to ancient India.*

This includes all that demands our attention before the time of Mahmûd of Ghaznî, A.D. 1,000.

In this division of the subject must be considered—

Ch. i. i. Hindû legends and traditions. To this may be added all that can be gleaned from purely Hindû sources.

ii. Information gathered from European sources.

The student will examine—

SECONDLY, *The history of India from the earliest appearance of the Muhammadans therein, to the* (so-called) *first* (second) *battle of Pânipat,* A.D. 1526.

This includes notices of—

i. Muhammadans before the Ghaznîvides. A.D. 711–977.

Contents of the History.	INTRO. § 39.
ii. The Ghaznîvides. A.D. 977–1152. iii. The Lâhôr Muhammadans, and especially Muhammad of Ghôr, whose slaves founded the empire of which Delhi became the capital. iv. The Muhammadan power in Delhi, from Kutb-ud-dîn to Ibrahîm Lôdî.	Ch. ii.
The next grand division is—	
THIRDLY, *The history of the Mogul Empire from* A.D. 1526, *the (first) battle of Pânipat, to the death of the last Mogul Emperor, Muhammad Bahâdar,* A.D. 1859.	Ch. iii.
The student must consider—	
FOURTHLY, *The history of the Dakhan; and especially the rise, revolutions, sub-divisions, and struggles of the Muhammadan powers in the Dakhan, from* A.D. 1294, *the invasion of Allah-ud-dîn Khilji, to the present time.*	Ch. iv.
We come to—	
FIFTHLY, *The history of the Mahrattas, from the birth of Sivaji,* A.D. 1627, *to the present time.*	Ch. v.
It will now be expedient to turn to—	
SIXTHLY, *The Portuguese in the East, from* A.D. 1498, *when Vasco-de-Gama landed in Calicut, to the present time.*	Ch. vi.
Of lesser importance are—	
SEVENTHLY, *The other European Companies who strove to obtain a share in the Eastern trade, to* A.D. 1744.	Ch. vii.
This prepares us for—	
EIGHTHLY, *The rivalries and wars of the French and English East India Companies, terminated by the surrender of Pondicherry to the English,* A.D. 1761.	Ch. viii.

The student must then turn to—

Ch. ix. NINTHLY, *The foundation of British power in Bengál, the events of* 1765, *and the interval to the appointment of the first Governor-General.*

This leads to—

Ch. x. TENTHLY, *The Governors-General of British India, from Warren Hastings,* 1774, *to the present time.*

A separate chapter must be given to—

Ch. xi. ELEVENTHLY, *The history of the Panjáb;*

And to—

Ch. xii. TWELFTHLY, *The history of Mysôr.*

NOTE.—In these twelve chapters the student's attention will be directed to four points:—

(1.) HISTORICAL FACTS, which must be distinctly mastered, and the student must accustom himself to re-state them in his own language. Compare the Chronological Index.

(2.) PERSONS. The student must not pass over any person of historical importance, without obtaining a fair view of his entire history. Here the Biographical index will afford help.

(3.) PLACES. These must be looked for on the map, and the foot-notes studied. The Geographical index must be referred to.

(4.) CONTEMPORARY EVENTS. No matter of Indian history is thoroughly known till it is inseparably connected in the mind with its corresponding event in European history.

CHAPTER I.

ANCIENT INDIA.

FROM THE EARLIEST TIMES TO THE BEGINNING OF AUTHENTIC CONTINUOUS INDIAN HISTORY AT THE RISE OF THE GHAZNÎVIDES.

PART I. Hindû Legends and Traditions.

§ 1. It has been said that, in the history of India no *date* of a public event can be fixed before Alexander, B.C. 327; and no connected relation of the national transactions can be attempted until after the Muhammadan conquest, 1000–1024 A.D.

Uncertainty of ancient Indian History.

[Canute in England.]

The ancient name of India is *Bhârata-Varsha*=the district of Bharata. This latter was apparently king of Hindûstân, in a pre-historic age.

Bhârata-Varsha.

§ 2. The most ancient Hindû books are the *Vêdas*, written in the sacred language of the Hindûs, the Sanskrit, and supposed to have been arranged in their present form about 1400 years B.C.

The Vêdas. *Compiled by* Vyâsa. Date B.C. 1400. ['The Exodus from Egypt, 1491.]

The Vêdic system of religion, consisting mainly of the worship of the personified elements, is now entirely obsolete in India. [See Gen. Index: Vêda.]

The Vêdic system.

The Sanskrit is the most copious and refined of all

Sanskrit. Co. § 13–15.

languages; and contains a vast store of interesting and valuable literature, proving that the ancient Hindûs were not inferior even to the Greeks in mental powers.

The Institutes of MANU. (*Mánava-D'harma-Sástra.*)

§ 3. The next work of consequence is the Institutes of *Manu*, the Hindû lawgiver, with which the student should make himself acquainted. He gives an account of the condition of Hindû society at the time he wrote, which is variously stated, from B.C. 900 to B.C. 200. But the materials are older than the work itself; and it may be supposed to represent mainly the state of things in India (*i.e.* in the N.W. Provinces and the Panjâb), ten centuries before the Christian æra.

[Building of Solomon's temple, B.C. 1012.]

Facts to be gained from Manu.

Castes.

§ 4. In connection with *Manu* may be noted—

(1.) The division of the ancient Hindûs into the four *castes* of Brâhmans, Kshatryas, Vaisyas, and Sûdras; or the *sacerdotal*, the *military*, the *industrial*, and the *servile* classes.

The twice-born.

(2.) The three first classes are called "twice-born" (a title given to all who have been invested with the sacred thread), and were evidently conquerors from Central Asia, while the Sûdras were, it would appear, a conquered race.

Common origin of races in Europe and India. Indo-Germanic languages.

(3.) The proved philological fact of the common origin of the Sanskrit, Zend, Greek, Latin, Gothic, Slavonic, and Keltic languages seems to show that the ancestors of the various tribes of men, who use dialects belonging to this great family of languages, have spread abroad from some central home, whence the twice-born found their way as immigrant conquerors into Hindûstân. This ancient people called themselves ÂRYAS. The original inhabitants were, for the most part, driven into the mountains, where they now dwell. By their conquerors these were called DASYUS, or *slaves*.

Âryа=*noble* [Arians, Aryans.]

Changes in castes.

(4.) This ancient system of caste has been much

changed. There are more than 150 different castes in India at this time, with innumerable subdivisions.

Of the ancient castes the Brâhmans, perhaps, alone remain; and they have departed in many essential respects from the rules and practices of their forefathers. They seem to have acquired their power over the minds of the other Hindûs by slow degrees, making use of their opportunities as the têachers and priests of their religion. Brâhmans.

(5.) The religion of Manu is mainly Vêdic, and essentially different from modern Hindûism; in this, and in every other respect, the Hindûs having deteriorated since the days of Manu. Vêdic religion.

(6.) In one particular the Hindû social system has been little altered since the days of Manu. The village communities, forming little republics, still exist, and manage their own affairs as far as they are permitted; having rude municipal institutions, effectual for the purposes of government and protection. Village communities.

These townships are under *Headmen*, who are supposed to possess the confidence of both the Government and the people; and who hold a portion of land from the Government, while they also receive fees from the people. Village functionaries.

Besides the headman there are an accountant, a watchman, a money-changer, a smith, a barber, and other functionaries, who receive payment from the village revenues.

§ 5. The first notice we have of the Hindûs in Hindûstân is in a passage of Manu, in which two tracts of country, called *Brahmâvarta* and *Brahmarshidêsa*, are spoken of as the early residences of the people. Ancient homes of the Hindû race.

The *Brahmâvarta* is the tract between the Saraswatî and Caggar (or *Drishadvatî*) rivers, about 100 miles to the N.W. of Delhi. Here the Âryans were settled probably before 1600 B.C. The *Brahmarshidêsa* is the country to the east of this, up to the Jamna, with all to Brahmâvarta. Brahmarshidêsa.

[=*the land of the singers.*]

the north, including North Bihâr. Here dwelt the ancient princes and sages of Hindû mythology. Here was the magnificent Sanskrit language perfected. Here the decimal notation was invented. This is the HOLY LAND of India.

The importance of these places.

The *Madhyadêsa* (=*middle land*) extended from Allâhâbâd to the Satlaj, and from the Himâlayas to the Vindhyas.

The Purâṇas. Solar and Lunar races.

§ 6. The Purâṇas (*ancient* mythological works) begin with *Oudh* (Ayodhya), whence the princes of the Solar and Lunar dynasties sprang. The former were supported by the Brâhmans, and the latter by the Kshatryas.

Râma.

Râma, whose history (which seems to be of Buddhist origin) has doubtless some foundation in fact, is the great hero of the *Solar* race. His story is told in the *Râmâyaṇa*, an epic (composed by the great poet *Vâlmiki*, probably in the second century, B.C.), of which versions exist in all the languages of India. He invaded the Dakhan, which he found filled with monkeys, *i.e.*, with Gônds, Kols, Khônds, and other uncivilised aborigines, by whose aid he conquered *Râvaṇa*, the king of Lankâ or Ceylon. (Perhaps B.C. 1200.) Traces of this expedition exist. [See GEN. INDEX: RÂMÂYAṆA.]

Râmâyaṇa. Chap. iv. § 3.

B.C. 1200.

His kingdom probably merged in that of which, in later days, Kanouj was the capital. Sixty princes of his race are enumerated. It must be borne in mind that Hindû works contain no trustworthy chronological data.

The Mahâ Bhârata. Probably written 240 B.C. Pândûs and Kurus. (About 59 miles N.E. from Delhi.)

§ 7. The MAHÂ BHÂRATA is a legend (composed by a second Vyâsa), of the *Lunar* dynasty.

It gives an account of the war between the kindred families of the *Pâṇḍûs* and *Kurus*, assisted by many tribes, speaking different languages, for the territory of *Hastinâpûra*. Krishṇa, now worshipped as an incarnation of Vishṇu, was an ally of the Pâṇḍûs. He had founded a principality in Gujarât. This war raged pro-

bably between 1400 and 1300 B.C. The great battle was fought at Tanêshwar, 30 miles west of Delhi. The Sanskrit name for the place of battle is KURUKSHÂTRA (the field of the Kurus.)

B.C. 1400 to 1300. [Contemporaries: BELUS, TROS, PELOPS.]

The plain between the Saraswatî and the Jamna where are Tirûri, Narâin, Tanêshwar, and Pânipat, has been the scene of many of the decisive battles of India.

The successors of the Pâṇḍûs seem to have reigned in Delhi, the ancient name of which was *Indraprashṭa*. Twenty-nine of these are mentioned in legendary histories. [See GEN. INDEX: MAHÂBHÂRATA.]

§ 8. In the Mahâ Bhârata mention is made of the king of *Magadha*, or Bihâr.

Bahâr [Bihâr].

He was the head of many chieftains.

(1.) *Sahâ-dêva* was king at the time of the Mahâ Bhârata war.

Sahâ-dêva.

(2.) The thirty-fifth in succession from him was Ajâta-Satru, who murdered his father, Bimbasâra, and in whose reign flourished Sâkya Muni, or Gôtama, the founder of Buddhism, the most widely extended religion in the world. His death probably took place in B.C. 543.

The origin of Buddhism. (Comp. § 11.)

(3.) The sixth king from Ajâta-Satru was *Nanda*, of the Nâga dynasty.

Nanda. About 400 B.C.

The name *Nâga* or *Takshaka*=serpent, was given to the tribe from which sprang the kings of this dynasty, because a serpent was their national emblem; perhaps also an object of their worship. They were Scythians, allied to the Scandinavians, and perhaps entered India in the seventh century, B.C.

(4.) The ninth from Nanda was *Chandragupta*, called Sandracottus by the Greeks. (§ 20.) He was the founder of what is called the *Mauryan* dynasty.

Chandragupta. 315 B.C.

(5.) The third from Chandragupta was the famous patron of Buddhism, ASÔKA (B.C. 260–220), who assumed the name of Piyadâsî (=*beloved of the gods*). Edicts of his favouring Buddhism, have been found sculptured on rocks in Cattack, Gujarât, and elsewhere.

Asôka: the patron of Buddhism. B.C. 260–220. § 11. ["*the Indian Constantine.*"]

The most celebrated of these are—(1) At *Girnar*, near Jûnaghar; (2) At *Kâpur-di-Giri*, near Peshâwar; (3) At *Dhaulî*, in Orissa; and (4) On Lâṭhs or pillars at Delhi and Allâhâbâd.

The Buddhist *tops* (STÛPA) or shrine at *Sânchî* was commenced in B.C. 255.

Under these kings, Magadha rose to great eminence. Splendid roads ran across the country from Palibothra (probably on the site of, or not far from, the modern Patna) to the Indus and to Broach. Maritime expeditions introduced the Hindû religion into Jâva in B.C. 75.

Magadha.

The two great Æras, or B.C. 56, A.D. 78.

§ 9. The æra of Vikramâditya, King of Oujein in Mâlwah, is B.C. 57; and that of Sâlivâhana, whose capital was Paithun on the Godâvarî, is A.D. 78. (§ 23.)

The former is current in Hindûstân, and the latter in the Dakhan.

The Agnikulas.

The Prâmaras. (=Puars.)

The Hindû legends tells us that, about two centuries before the Christian æra, a race called the *Agnikulas* (= *the generation of fire*) arose to fight against the Buddhists. Of these the Prâmaras were the chief. They propagated Hindûism far and wide. The Buddhists retreated to Ceylon. From the Prâmara (contracted to Puar) sprang Vikramâditya. There have been several kings of this name.

The Hindû religions.

§ 10. The present Hindû religion, or the aggregate of the religions which go under the name of Hindûism, mainly sprang from the Purâṇas and other poetical works we have mentioned.

The three great divinities.

Three gods, Brahma the Creator, Sivà the destroyer, and Vishṇu the preserver, are acknowledged, though the worship of Brahma is almost unknown.

Demi-gods.

Deified heroes, such as Râma and Krishṇa, are worshipped as incarnations of Vishṇu. The wives, concubines, attendants, children, and even vehicles of these gods and demi-gods are worshipped. Thus 333,000,000 of beings are included in the Hindû Pantheon.

Demons.

Demon worship, the remains of the Scythic religion of the aborigines, still prevails very extensively, and has even invaded the Brâhmanical systems. It seems almost certain, indeed, that Siva, and his wife (so much worshipped under the names of Kâli, Durgà, and Bhavâni), are Scythic intruders into the Hindû system. They are not Âryan.

The worship of Siva, under the form of the Linga, is very ancient. In its origin and ceremonies it is free from indecencies; and probably originated in the worship of hills and rocks.

The religions of the Buddhists and Jains have been at times extensively prevalent in India.

Buddhism, § 8.

§ 11. *Buddhism* originated in S. Bahâr at Gayâ (Gya). Its founder was *Sâkya Muni*, or Gôtama, who died 543

B.C. It rejected Brâhmanism and caste, and in the reign of Asôka (§ 8) was triumphant throughout Hindûstân. The sacred books of the Buddhists are called the TRI-PIṬAKA (=*three caskets*). It spread into Ceylon about the end of the third century B.C., and afterwards into Tibet and China. (A.D. 65.) It was the prevailing religion in Benâres until the eleventh century. The Brâhmans after a long struggle succeeded in expelling it from India before the end of the twelfth century. Its greatest opponent in the Dakhan was *Sankara Âchârya*, who flourished in the eighth or ninth century A.D. The magnificent cave temples evacuated by the Buddhists were afterwards in many cases, as at Ellôra, taken possession of by the Brâhmans and filled with sculptures of their own.

B.C. 249. [The great council that established the Buddhist canon where A. presided. Comp. *Constantine the Great at the Council of Nice.*]

Sankara Âchârya. [The prophet Daniel. B.C. 555.]

Buddhism is practically a system of *Atheism* and *Nihilism*. The *Nirvâṇa* to which the Buddhist aspires is absolute NOTHING.

Sankara Âchârya's history is involved in mystery. He was a wandering teacher, involved in endless controversies, and apparently an ECLECTIC. He established a convent at Sringagiri, in the north of Mysôr, visited Kâshmîr, and died at Kedarnâth in the Himâlayas. Many writings are ascribed to him.

Sankara.

§ 12. The *Jain* system is midway between the pseudo-spiritual Buddhism and the grossly material Brâhmanism. The Jains retain caste, and acknowledge the whole Hindû Pantheon, but regard certain saints (twenty-four in number), called *Tirthankâras* (=those who *by ascetic practices* have crossed the ocean of human existence), as superior to the gods.

The Jains.

The Jain saints.

Of these PÂRSWANÂTH was the twenty-third, and MAHÂVÎRA the twenty-fourth. The date of the latter is probably not anterior to A.D. 1100.

This system originated about 600 A.D., and declined after 1200 A.D. It chiefly prevailed in the South and in Gujarât. Jains abound still in Gujarât and in Kanara. They have always been a learned people. Tamil literature owes to them some of its finest compositions. Jain

authors were the real refiners of that exquisite language. They were much persecuted in Madura, and finally rooted out from there by *Kûna Pândiyôn*, their leaders being impaled, probably in the eleventh century.

(Comp. ch. iv. § 5.)

Sanskrit literature.

§ 13. The chief Sanskrit works have been referred to in the preceding sections. There are, however, innumerable important compositions extant in Sanskrit in almost every department of literature, especially excelling in whatever can be evolved by contemplation.

Indian civilisation was very ancient, and of a high order.

If we accept the pictures of ancient Hindû manners contained in the oldest Sanskrit poems, we shall conclude that the old Hindûs were, in habits and feelings, not unlike Homer's Greeks. The use of animal food and of intoxicating liquors was allowed. Polygamy and polyandry existed. Gambling was a most prevalent vice. Nothing, however, can surpass the refinement and chivalrous feeling exhibited in Kâlidâsa's exquisite compositions.

Kâlidâsa.

The Sanskrit dramas still existing are about sixty. Of these the most celebrated is the Sakuntalâ of Kâlidâsa (the Hindû Virgil), who probably lived in the fifth century. (A.D.)

Kâlidâsa is sometimes said to have flourished at the court of Vikramâditya (B.C. 57), and to have been one of the nine gems of his court.

Epics.

The great epics are the Râmâyaṇa and the Mahâ Bhârata. (§ 6, 7.)

The latter contains upwards of 100,000 lines. An exquisite episode in it, called the Bhagavat-gîtâ, (=the divine song,) contains some of the finest philosophical poetry that has ever been composed.

Purâṇas.

§ 14. The *Purâṇas* are inexhaustible storehouses of mythological lore. They are the sources of the popular religion of India.

There are eighteen major, and eighteen minor Purâṇas. They are not older than the eighth century of the Christian æra: some of them much later.

Philosophy. [See Gen. Index, under *Philosophy*.]

§ 15. The Hindûs have ever been addicted to the study of *Philosophy*, and six systems are enumerated, which were recognised by the Hindûs, though more or less inconsistent with their religious tenets. These systems, greatly modified by Western influences, still possess much power over the minds of the people in all parts of the land.

In these are discussed, with great subtlety, most of the metaphysical questions which have exercised the intellect of the philosophers of ancient Greece and of modern Europe.

Vêdânta.

Of these systems the Vêdânta, which is a system of Pantheism in its modern form, teaches that there is really nothing existing but the Supreme; and that all souls are finally to be absorbed into the Divine essence. This is the only philosophy which exercises much practical effect on the minds of the people at the present time.

PART II. Information regarding India from European sources.

Ancient Writers on India. [1 Kings x. 22.]

§ 16. The references in ancient writers to India are vague. Solomon's apes, peacocks, and ivory, came probably from Ceylon. Hindû merchants in very ancient times sailed westwards, and the harbours of the Malabâr Coast and of Ceylon were crowded with vessels from the west; but we have no authentic details of those times. The conquest of India by Bacchus is mere poetical fable. The expeditions of Semiramis have no authentic foundation.

Sesostris, 1308 B.C.

§ 17. Sesostris.

It is difficult to say how much confidence should be placed in the account given us by Diodorus Siculus of the conquests of *Sesostris*. He was a king of Egypt in

1308 B.C. Aiming at universal empire, he fitted out a fleet of 400 ships, which conquered all the regions from the Red Sea to India.

Meanwhile, he himself led an army by land across the Ganges to the Eastern Ocean. His conquests, even if real, had no permanent result.

The ancient Persian invasion, 518 B.C. [*Darius=Dara-wesh*; or Gush-tâsp.]

§ 18. DARIUS, THE SON OF HYSTASPES. B.C. 518–485. Raised to the throne of Persia by chance or artifice, he was a worthy ruler. He conquered Eastern Kâbul, the Panjâb, and part of Sind. He aimed at something more than mere conquest: he desired to fuse the conquered provinces into one homogeneous empire. He divided his empire into twenty Satrapies, of which India was one. The Indian tribute is said to have been paid in gold, and to have amounted to £1,290,000 sterling—a sum equal to 2-5ths of the whole tribute paid by the other nineteen.

The Panjâb under Persia.

Skylax, the Persian admiral.

Darius contented himself with the conquest of the Panjâb; but under his direction, Skylax, his admiral, explored the Indus, sailing down the stream into the Indian Ocean, round Arabia, up the Red Sea, to Egypt.

This was nearly the period of the first propagation of Buddhism.

The ancient Grecian invasion. Alexander the Great. B.C. 330–323. [*Iskandar*, or *Sikandar*.]

§ 19. Alexander the Great, the conqueror of Persia, after the defeat and death of Darius, passed on towards India, ever the goal of each conqueror, whose wealth was to recompense the soldier for all his toils. In 330 B.C., he founded the important frontier city of Herât, and wintered at "Alexandria apud Caucasum," probably Beghram, near Kâbul. He then founded the Bactrian kingdom.

Herât.

After three years spent in these Scythic regions, he passed through the Khyber Pass, crossed the Indus at Attock in April 337 B.C., and encountered and defeated Pôrus near Gujarât between the Jhîlam and the Chinâb,

Gujarât.

near the spot where the Sikhs sustained their last crushing defeat. (Ch. xi. § 42, 43.)

Taxiles, who then ruled over the country from the Indus to the Jhîlam, seems to have aided Alexander.

Taxiles. [*Taksha* was an ancient king; and *Takshashilá*, a city in the Panjáb.]

Pôrus, too, whom Alexander treated generously, became his faithful ally.

[Chap. xi. § 9.]

[Pôrus: perhaps PURU, a common name of Kings of the Lunar race.]

From thence he advanced to the banks of the Satlaj, being intent upon the conquest of Magadha, of the magnificence of whose capital, Palibothra, he had heard. But his soldiers refused to advance, and with deep sorrow and mortification he again turned his face towards Greece. His first care was to construct a fleet to convey his troops down the Satlaj to the Indus, and thus home. But first he erected twelve huge altars, on which he offered sacrifices to the gods for his victories. The army then embarked with due libations to the river, and sailed down the stream with extraordinary pomp.

Alexander compelled to return.

The fleet on the Indus.

At or near the mouth of the Indus was an ancient city called Patâla, whose site cannot be verified. The Râja of this region treated Alexander with kindness, and he remained there for some time. He then left his Admiral Nearchus to proceed by sea, while he himself with a part of the army marched back through Bilûchistân, or Gedrosia. Nearchus sailed on the 9th September 326 B.C., and arrived at the mouth of the Euphrates, after a voyage which is considered to be one of the most memorable in ancient history. He joined Alexander, who died in 323, at Babylon.

The Greek admiral Nearchus. B.C. 326.

B.C. 323.

Alexander's views were enlarged. Added to his wonderful military genius was a wish to connect all nations by the ties of commerce and mutual self-interest. His conquest of India, if he had been permitted to complete it, would doubtless have been a great benefit.

The designs of the great conqueror.

This was the period when the Hindûs had reached their highest point of cultivation.

The Indo-Bactrian kingdom.

§ 20. The Indo-Bactrian kingdom on the death of Alexander fell to Seleucus, one of his ablest generals, who became King of Syria. Chandragupta was then King of Magadha, having taken *Pâtaliputra* (Palibothra) from the Râja of the Prasii. (§ 8.) He is said to have been the illegitimate son of the preceding king, by a woman of the barber caste, whose name was *Murâ*, and to have possessed extraordinary ability and energy. From his mother's name his race is called the Mauryan. Against him Seleucus marched, and a great battle was fought, with what issue is uncertain; but a treaty was made, and Seleucus gave his daughter in marriage to the Indian king, and gave up to him the provinces east of the Indus for a subsidy of fifty elephants.

Chandragupta and Seleucus. B.C. 312.

[*Prasii*: probably from *Prâchya*= *eastern*: people east of the Saraswatî.]

Megasthenes.

Megasthenes was appointed the Greek ambassador at the Court of Palibothra. He has given full accounts of the state of India at that time. The stories of the grandeur of Chandragupta, of his army, and of his capital, are well-nigh incredible.

Fall of the Greek kingdom of Bactria.

The Greek kingdom of Bactria became independent under a rebel called Theodotus, and finally fell under a Saka-Scythian (or a Tâtar) tribe from Transoxiana about B.C. 126.

Numerous coins belonging to these kings have been found in the Panjâb and in the Trans-Indus provinces.

Among these kings were Theodotus II., Euthydemus, Demetrius, Eukratidas I. and II.

Descendants of Chandragupta.

The Andhras.

§ 21. The family of Chandragupta retained the kingdom for ten generations, and were followed by three Sûdra dynasties, the last of which, the *Andhras*, ended in A.D. 436. (§ 8.)

Karna.

The name of one of these kings, KARNA, survives in Sanskrit books as a synonym for liberality.

Bengâl. (Comp. ch. ii. § 19.)

§ 22. In Bengâl, a dynasty of Vidyu kings preceded one of Pâla kings, which was followed by one of Sênas; which last was subverted by the Muhammadans in A.D.

1203. They are said to have reigned over great part of India. Their capital was Gour, from A.D. 785 to 1040. But there were contemporary dynasties reigning in Kanouj, Delhi, Âjmîr, Mêwâr, and Gujarât, of which little is known certainly.

The Vidyus were of the medical tribe. Their capital was Nuddea. Âdisûra, of this dynasty, procured five Brâhmans from Kanouj, by whom Hindûism was reformed in Bengâl. From these are descended the Brâhmans of Bengâl.

§ 23. We come then to Vikramâditya in Oujein (§ 9), whose successor after many generations was Râja Bhôja (from whom Bhôpâl takes its name), who reigned till about the end of the eleventh century. Oujein or Ûjein.

Many legends are connected with the name of VIKRAMÂDITYA (=*the sun of victory*). He seems to have ruled over Magadha, Mâlwâ, and Telingâna, and to have been of the Andhra family. (Comp. § 9, and chap. iv. § 12.)

§ 24. The grandson of Bhôja was conquered by the Râja of Gujarât. But Mâlwah recovered its independence, and was finally subdued by the Muhammadans in A.D. 1231. (Ch. ii. § 23.) Mâlwâ.

§ 25. Gujarât in the second century had a Râjpût dynasty called the Balabhî princes (who drove out the SÂHS, a race of Parthian (?) invaders), who at length emigrated in A.D 594, and founded the kingdom of Mêwâr. They are thought to have been driven out by Persians under Noushîrvân (A.D. 531–579). (Comp. ch. iii. § 6, 12.) Gujarât. The Balabhis.

§ 26. The Chauras, also Râjpûts, succeeded in Gujarât. Their capital was Anhalwâra, now Pattan (A.D. 746–931). To these succeeded the Salônkas, who were finally subdued by Allâ-ud-dîn-Khiljî in A.D. 1297. (Ch. ii. § 16.) The Chauras.

The Rathôrs.

§ 27. In Kanauj, the Rathôrs obtained power in A.D. 470, and retained it till subdued by the Musalmâns in A.D. 1193. (Ch. ii. § 16.) The Rathôrs founded the present dynasty of Mârwâr.

In Kanauj originated the dialect of Hindi called hence the Kanaujî.

§ 28. The following table will assist the memory :—

ANCIENT HINDÛ STATES.

1	MAGADHA ...	§ 19–21.
2	MÂLWÂ ...	§ 9, 24.
3	GUJARÂT ...	Sâhs, Balabhîs. Chauras. § 20.
4	MÊWÂR. ...	§ 25.
5	KANOUJ ...	Rathôrs. Ch. II. § 16, 17.
6	BENÂRES ...	Subverted 1193.
7	MITHILA ...	Kingdom of Râma. Oudh.
8	DELHI ...	Subverted 1195 A.D.
9	AJMÎR ...	Do do.
10	MÂRWÂR ...	The Rathôrs. § 27.
11	SIND ...	Conquered by Muhammad of Ghôr.
12	KASHMÎR ...	Ch. XI. § 7.
13	PÂNDYA kingdom of MADURA.	Ch. IV. § 5, 6.
14	CHÔLA of KÂNCHIPURAM ...	Ch. IV. § 7.
15	SÊRA of TRAVANCORE ...	Ch. IV. § 8.
16	BALÂLA of DWÂRA SAMUDRA.	Ch. XII. § 2.
17	WARANGAL ...	Ch. IV. § 12.
18	PAITHUN—SÂLIVÂHANA ...	Ch. IV. § 94.

TABLE OF PLACES HAVING DIFFERENT NAMES.

§ 29. *The following Table will be of use to the Student :—*

Allâhâbâd ...	S. Prayâg=*confluence.*		
Amû R. ...	Oxus.		
Arcot ...	Arkatou Basileion	...	Ptolemy.
Bihâr, South ...	Magadha	...	§ 8.
North with Oudh ...	Mithilâ.		
Bilûchistân ...	Gedrosia		Alex. marched through it towards the close of the summer of 325 B.C.
Bîâs R. (Beas) ...	Hyphasis, Hypanis.		

Broach, Barôch, Barûch...	Baryagaza	In the Periplûs. Ch. IV. § 14.
Barcelôr ...	Tyndis ...	Periplûs.
Ceylon ...	S. Lanka, an. *Taprobane*...	Ch. I. § 6. Introd. § 37.
Cochin ...	Colchi ...	The Periplûs.
Chambal ...	Sambus ...	Arrian.
Chinâb R. ...	Acesines.	
Delhi ...	Indraprashta.	
Dêogiri, Dêoghar ...	Doulatâbâd ...	Ch. IV. § 16.
Jamna R. ...	Erranoboas ...	Some say the *Sone*.
Jhîlam R. ...	Hydaspes.	
Helmund R. ...	Elymandrus.	
Herât ...	Artachoana.	
Himâlaya M. ...	S. Himavat.	
Hindûstân ...	S. Bhârata Varsha.	
Hindûstân proper ...	S. Madhya Dêsa (= *middle region*).	
Hûglî (Hooghly) ...	Magnum Ostium.	
Kâbul—River ...	Cophenes.	
Kanouj (Canouje) ...	Kanyâkubja.	
Khiva ...	Kharism, Chorasmia ...	Ch. II. § 22.
Kôtâr, *in S. Travancore* ...	Kettiara metropolis ...	Ptolemy.
Mangalore ...	Musiris ...	The Periplûs.
Masulipatam ...	Mesolia ...	Do.
Midnapûr ...	Tamluk, or Tâmralipti ...	
Nelisuram ...	Nelkunda ...	The Periplûs.
Oudh ...	Ayodhya, or *Kôshala*.	
Oudh, and part of the Lower Doâb	S. Panchâla.	
Paitan (Paithin, Pyetun)	Plinthana (?) ...	In the Periplûs.
Pattan ...	Anhalwâra, Nehrwalla	Ancient capital of Gujarât. Ch. I. § 26. II. § 19.
Palibothra ...	S. Pâtaliputra (Patna ?).	
Quilon ...	Coulan.	
Ravî R. ...	Hydraotes.	
Satlaj R. ...	Hysudrus.	
Sâtpura Hills ...	S. Injâdrî.	
Sirkârs, Northern ...	Kalinga ...	Perhaps the classical Kalinga was Orissa.
Solimân M. ...	Imaus Mons.	

NOTE.—Besides these sources of information *Fa-hian* and *Hioucn-Thsang*, Chinese Buddhists, travelled in India, the former in the beginning of the fifth century (399 to 414), and the latter in the seventh century (629 to 645); and their travels have been translated from the Chinese. The latter gives an account of the manners of the people, corresponding with that of the Greek writers.

CHAPTER II.

THE HISTORY OF THE VARIOUS AFGHÂN DYNASTIES THAT RULED IN INDIA TILL THE TIME OF BABER, 1526; THE PRE-MOGUL MUHAMMADAN PERIOD.

PART I.—SUMMARY; 664–1526.

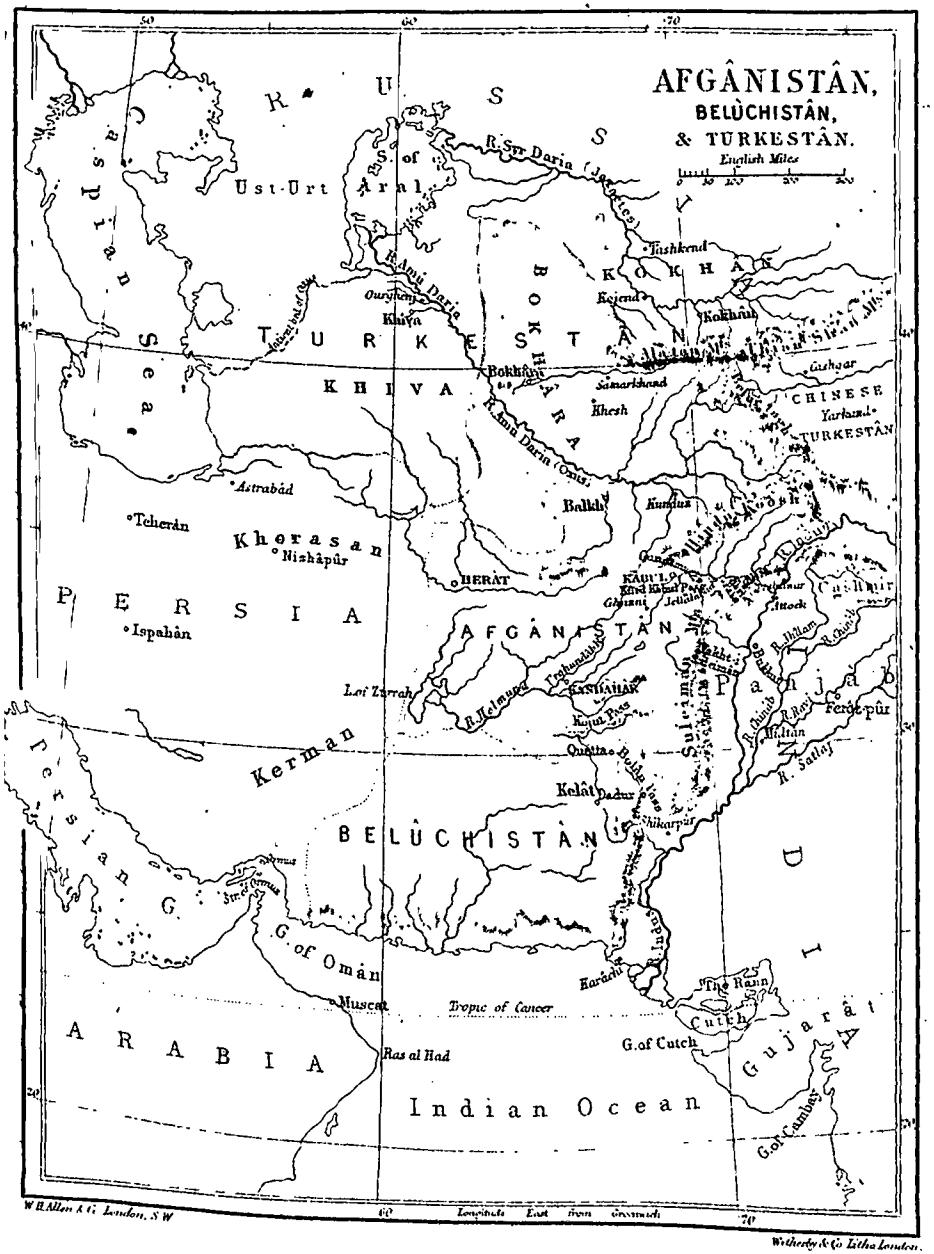
Struggles of Hindûs against Muhammadans, 1001–1740.

§ 1. From about the beginning of the eleventh century of the Christian æra the history of India is chiefly occupied with the struggles of the Hindû races against Muhammadan conquerors of various tribes. This period lasted about 750 years (from 1001 to 1740): from the first expedition of Muhammad of Ghaznî to the taking of Delhi by Nâdir Shâh.

Afghâns followed by Tâtars.

§ 2. The general name *Afghâns* (=Pathân) may be given to the Muhammadan invaders and rulers of Northern India before the establishment of the Mogul (or Mongul) dominion by Bâber in A.D. 1526. Of these there were seven dynasties. Their history is given in this chapter. Thirty-four Muhammadan kings are enumerated from Muhammad of Ghôr to Ibrahîm Lôdi, both included. The name Afghân belongs to the various warlike tribes inhabiting the mountains of Ghôr and other districts bordering on Kâbul and Persia. They were originally fire-worshippers, and then became converts to Muhammadanism.

§ 3. The following is a summary of this portion of Indian history:—



W.H. Allen & Co. London, S.W.
Witherby & Co. Litho. London.

		A.D.	Contemporary Events.
	Introductory: the birth of Muhammad ...	569	Justinian, Emperor of Constantinople, 527–565.
	Hijra, or flight of Muhammad to Medina ...	622	
	Conquest of Persia ...	632	Edwin V. Bretwalda slain by Penda, 633.
§ 4.	First appearance of Muhammadans in India, under		Târik landed at Gibraltar, 711.
			Battle of Xeres, and death of Roderic, 712.
	(I.) Muhâlib ...	664	
	(II.) Muhammad Kâsim ...	711	The Muhammadan conquest of Spain by Târik and Mûsa, A.D. 713, 714.
	Invades Sind ...	711	
	The Muhammadans expelled from India ...	750	Charles Martel's overthrow of the Saracens, between Poictiers and Tours, 732 A.D.
			Charlemagne, 800.
I.	The Ghaznîvides. ...	996 to 1186	Alfred the Great, 871–900.
§ 5–15.	Alptegin, a Tûrkî slave, Muhammadan governor of Khorâsân, being deprived of his government, flees to Ghaznî, where he makes himself independent ...	961	King Edgar, 959–965.
	Sabaktegîn, son-in-law of Alptegin, succeeds ...	977	
	Jaipâl, King of Lâhôr, and probably Râjpût King of Delhi, attacks Sabaktegin and is defeated. The Muhammadan dominion is extended to the Indus ...	978	Hugh Capet, 987–996.
	Mahmûd of Ghaznî, son of Sabaktegin, succeeds ...	996	
	His twelve expeditions into India ...	1001 to 1024	Massacre of Danes, 1002. Danish kings in Britain: 1013 to 1042.

		A.D.	Contemporary Events.
	In the tenth of these, Lâhôr and its territory were permanently annexed to the Ghaznî-vide dominions ...	1022	Canute the Great, 1016–1035.
	Death of Mahmûd of Ghaznî ...	1030	Macbeth murders Duncan, 1039.
	Muhammad succeeded, and was dethroned by Masâud I.	1030	The Norman Conquest, 1066.
	Beirâm, the Ghazîvide ...	1118	The Crusades, 1095 to 1270.
	Ghaznî sacked and burnt by Allâ-ud-dîn Ghôrî ("*the burner of the world*") ...	1152	Henry II., the first of the Plantagenets, 1154–1189.
II.	The Ghôrians ...	1186 to 1206	
§ 16.	Muhammad Ghôrî, or Shahâb-ud-dîn, invaded India repeatedly, till his death ...	1153 to 1206	Constitutions of Clarendon, 1164. Conquest of Ireland, 1172. John, 1199–1216.
	First Muhammadan King of Delhi.		
III.	The Slave Kings ...	1206 to 1288	
§ 18 to § 30.	(I.) Kutb-ud-dîn, the first independent Muhammadan ruler in Delhi ...	1206	
	(II.) Âram ...	1210	
	(III.) Altamsh ...	1211	Stephen Langton died, 1228.
	Irruption of the Mo(n)guls. Changiz Khân.	1217	Magna Charta, 1215. Henry III., 1216–1272.
	(IV.) Ruku-ud-dîn ...	1236	
	(V.) Sultâna Rezîa ...	1236	
	(VI.) Beirâm ...	1239	Hanseatic league, 1243.
	(VII.) Masâud III. ...	1241	
	(VIII.) Nâsir-ud-dîn Mahmûd	1246	
	(IX.) Balban (Balin) ...	1266	The first regular English Parliament, 1265.
	(X.) Kei Kobad ... Slain by Jelâl-ud-dîn Khiljî ...	1286	Conquest of Wales, 1283.
		1288	Edward I., 1272–1307.

		A.D.	CONTEMPORARY EVENTS.
IV.	HOUSE OF KHILJÎ ... (a tribe of Tatârs or Tartars).	1288 to 1321	
§31 to §33.	(I.) Jelâl-ud-dîn Khiljî (Ferôz Shâh) ...	1288	War with Scotland, 1296. Roger Bacon died, 1292.
	His nephew, Alîâ-ud-dîn, invaded the Dakhan ...	1294	Edward II., 1307–1327.
	(II.) Assassinated his uncle and succeeded him ...	1295	Death of Wallace, 1303.
	(III.) Mubârik Khiljî ...	1317	Battle of Bannockburn, 1314. Tell shoots Gesler, 1308.
V.	HOUSE OF TUGHLAK ...	1321 to 1412	Dante died, 1321.
§34 to §44.	(I.) Gheiâz-ud-dîn Tughlak	1321	Edward III., 1327–1377.
	Conquest of Warangal ...	1323	
	(II.) Jûna Khân (Sultân Muhammad III.) ...	1325	
[Ch. iv. §20.]	Vijaya-nagar (Bîjanagar) founded, and Hindû power restored in the south ...	1344	Battle of Cressy, 1346.
	Foundation of the Bâhminî dynasty of Kulbûrga ...	1347	Rienzi, 1347–1354.
	(III.) Ferôz Tughlak ...	1351	Battle of Poictiers, 1356.
	(IV.) Gheiâz-ud-dîn Tughlak II. ...	1389	Establishment of the Ottomans in Europe, 1353.
	(V.) Abûbekr Tughlak ...	1389	
	(VI.) Nâsir-ud-dîn Tughlak	1394	
	(VII.) Muhammad Tughlak	1412	Dismemberment of the empire. Union of Calmar, 1397. Usurpation of Henry IV., 1399.
	TAMERLANE TAKES DELHI...	1398	Battle of Angora, and death of Bajazet, 1403.
VI.	THE SEIADS ...	1412 to 1450	
§46.	[Daulat Khân Lodî ...	1412]	
	(I.) Khizr Khân ...	1414	Agincourt, 1415.
	(II.) Mubârik ...	1421	J. Huss burnt, 1415.
	(III.) Muhammad ...	1435	Prince Henry of Portugal, 1419.
	(IV.) Alîâ-ud-dîn ...	1444	

		A.D.	CONTEMPORARY EVENTS.
VII.	THE HOUSE OF LODÎ.	1450 to 1526	1443. Constantinople taken by the Turks. The first Portuguese Viceroy, 1505. House of Tudor, 1485–1603.
§47.	(I.) Buhlol Lodî ...	1450	Ferdinand and Isabella, 1479.
	(II.) Sikander Lodî ...	1488	Bosworth field, 1485.
	VASCO DE GÂMA lands in Calicut ...	1498	Discovery of America, 1492. Henry VIII., 1509–1547.
	(III.) Ibrahîm Lodî ...	1518	Death of Ximenes, 1517. Battle of Pavia, 1525.
	(FIRST) BATTLE OF PÂNIPAT.	1526	Death of Wolsey, 1530.

The first invasion of India by Muhammad Kâsim, 711.

§ 4. Beyond merely piratical expeditions, which reached Mûltân in 664, there was no systematic Musalmân invasion of India till the time of the Khalîf Walid, when Muhammad Kâsim, nephew of the Governor of Basra (Bussora), landed at Dêwâl (Debal), a city somewhere near the modern Karâchî, and, after many severe engagements, in one of which, in 712, Dâhir, Râja of Sind fell, overran the whole of Sind. His attempt to conquer Hindûstân is said to have been frustrated by Bâpû, the Râjpût of Chîtôr, from whom the Rânas of Oudipûr [Udayapûr] trace their descent. His career was cut short, it is said, by a Hindû princess, who brought against him a false accusation, which cost him his life. From that time the Muhammadan sway in Sind seems to have been merely nominal for five hundred years; though the conquered princes embraced Muhammadanism.

Sind.

[Comp. ch. iii. § 6.]

Kâsim's death, 714.

NOTE.—In 644 there was a powerful dynasty in Sind, whose capital was Alôr: its ruins are near Sukkur.

The rise of the Ghaznivides.

[Death of Haroun-al-Rashid, A.D. 806.]

§ 5. We now come to the race which effected the permanent conquest of a great part of Hindûstân. A dynasty of Tatârs called the Samânîs, ruled in Khorâsân and Transoxiana, often called *Maver-ul-Nahar=the land*

of the rivers, in the ninth century. Their capital was BOKHÂRA. The fifth prince of that dynasty was Abdulmelk, who had a Tûrkî slave called Alptegîn, who rose to be Governor of Khorâsân. Driven from thence by the revolutions consequent on the death of his master, he retreated to Ghaznî, where he made himself independent. He died A.D. 976.

Alptegîn, master of the father of Mahmûd.

§ 6. A slave of Alptegîn, called Sabaktegîn, married his daughter, and succeeded him. Jaipâl, Râja of Lâhôr, attacked him in the valley beyond Peshâwar, but was repulsed. Sabaktegîn now advanced in his turn, and Jaipâl, with the Râjas of Delhi, Kanauj, Kalinjar and Âjmîr, met him in battle.

The first war between India and Ghaznî.

Sabaktegîn, father of Mahmûd.

The Muhammadan was victorious; and, after plundering the adjacent districts, took possession of the country up to the Indus. Sabaktegîn died in 996.

996–1001.

The first step.

NOTE.—Muhammadans in India are divided into four classes:—1. *Sayyids*, who claim to be of the family of Muhammad; 2. *Mughuls*, descendants of the Tatâr conquerors of India; 3. *Pathâns*, or Afghâns, whose title is Khân; 4. *Shaiks*, those who do not belong to any of the three former divisions. The terms Mopla, Lubby, and Sidi are used. The two former for men of mixed race. The last denotes Abyssinians, and is a corruption, perhaps of *Sayyid*.

PART II.—THE FIRST AFGHÂN DYNASTY; 996–1186.

I. § 7. Sabaktegîn left a son, MAHMÛD, probably illegitimate, then in his thirtieth year. He had been the companion of his father in his expeditions, and shared his ambition. Mahmûd made himself fully independent in the government of Khorâsân, obtained a confirmation of his right from the Khalîf at Baghdâd, and assumed the title of Sultân.

Mahmûd of Ghaznî, 996–1030.

Strengthens his position.

India was the field to which he was led by his desire of plunder, not less than by the ambition of spreading the Muhammadan faith in those idolatrous regions. He is known in history as the "Iconoclast." The list of

Motives that led him to invade India.

his expeditions is variously given: the following are the most important.

His first expedition, 1001.

His first expedition into India was made in A.D. 1001. He was attended by 10,000 chosen horse. His standard was black, a fitting emblem of his deeds. He defeated Jaipâl of Lâhôr, near Peshâwar; took him prisoner; crossed the Satlaj to *Batinda*, which he stormed; and then returned to Ghaznî. Batinda was a fortress of prodigious strength, one of the residences of the Râja of Lâhôr. It now belongs to the Râja of Pattiâla.

Batinda.

[But this was probably *Waihind* on the Indus.]

(Ch. xi. § 8.)

Suicide of Jaipâl.

Jaipâl, weary of disasters, abdicated in favour of his son Ânand Pâl, and ordered a funeral pyre to be erected, which he ascended, setting fire to it with his own hands.

This dynasty came to end with Bhîmpâl, son of Jaipâl II. (§ 10). They first possessed Kâbul, and thence removed to Lâhôr. From the effigies on their coins they have been called the "Bull and horseman" dynasty.

Second Expedition, 1004. Third Expedition, 1005. Fourth Expedition, 1008-9.

§ 8. Mahmûd's second expedition, in 1004, was against the Râja of Bhâtîa (or Bhêra), near Mûltân. His third, in 1005, was against Abûl Fath Lodî, chief of Mûltân. His fourth, in 1008, was a more important one against Ânand-Pâl, who had formed a confederacy of the neighbouring Râjas, and with his compatriots advanced to meet him, with all the ardour of men defending their independence and their faith. Mahmûd gained a victory, bought, however, with immense loss.

(N.W. of Lâhôr.)

He then directed his course to Nâgarkôt (now Kângra), on the southern slope of the Himâlayas, a wealthy shrine, which he took and plundered, returning to Ghaznî with incalculable wealth in gold and precious stones.

(Ch. xi. § 5.)

Fifth Expedition, 1010.

His fifth expedition to India was in 1010. In this he took Mûltân.

Sixth Expedition, 1011. (About 30 miles from Delhi.)

The sixth expedition was to Tanêshwar, between the Saraswatî and the Jamna, which he sacked. Mahmûd meanwhile made inroads into the mountain districts of

Ghôr, and finally, in 1016, took Samarkhand and Bokhâra. But the great business of his life was to despoil India. Comp. ch. i. § 7.

His seventh and eighth Indian expeditions were into Kâshmir. In these he encountered great perils. Seventh and eighth Expeditions, 1014, 1015.

While Hindûism was receiving such rude shocks in the North-west, Râmânuja, the Vaishnavite teacher was gaining converts to it, and building splendid temples in the South. He was born A.D. 1008. [Comp. ch. iv. § 9.]

§ 9. The ninth expedition in 1017–1019 was on a larger scale. Mahmûd was now determined to penetrate into the very heart of Hindûstân. His army consisted of 100,000 horse and 20,000 foot, gathered from all parts of his dominions. He marched from Peshâwar along the foot of the mountains, crossing the Panjâb rivers as near to their source as possible, and presented himself before Kanauj. This was a stately city, full of incredible wealth; and its king, sometimes styled Emperor of India, kept a splendid court. It was in this kingdom that orthodox Hindûism had found a refuge when Buddhism was triumphant in Hindûstân. The king threw himself on the generosity of Mahmûd, who admitted him to his friendship; and, after three days, left his city uninjured. Ninth Expedition, 1017-9. Kanauj. (*Kanya-Kubja*, W. of the Ganges, 65 miles W.N.W. from Lucknow). =Canouje.

From thence he advanced to Muttra, sacred as the birthplace of Krishna, which was given up to the soldiers for twenty days. Muttra (properly *Mat'hura*, on the W. bank of the Jamna, 30 miles N.N.W. from Agra).

Its temples struck Mahmûd with admiration, and kindled in him the desire to cover the barren rocks of Ghaznî with similar edifices. Hindû slaves after this were sold at two rupees each. Comp. ch. i. § 7.

§ 10. His tenth and eleventh expeditions were undertaken in A.D. 1022 and 1023. In these he attacked, but unsuccessfully, the Râja of Kalinjar. In the first of these expeditions Jaipâl II. (son of Ânand-Pâl) opposed him; and *the result was the permanent occupation of Lâhôr by a Muhammadan garrison. A viceroy was stationed there. This was the foundation of the Musalmân empire in India.* Tenth and eleventh expeditions, 1022, 1023. [See map of Central India Agency.] Lâhôr occupied, 1021, first permanent Muhammadan settlement in India.

CH. II. § 11, 12. A.D. 1030.

I. Mahmûd of Ghazni's expeditions into India.

Twelfth expedition, 1024. Sômnâth.

§ 11. Mahmûd now made his last and greatest effort. He resolved to plunder and destroy the celebrated shrine of Sômnâth, in Gujarât. The march was long, including 350 miles of desert; and Mahmûd made extraordinary preparations for it. He passed through Âjmîr to Anhalwâra, the ancient capital of Gujarât, all fleeing before him. The struggle before Sômnâth was terrible, and lasted three days. The Râjpût princes assembled from all parts to defend their holiest shrine, and nothing but the bravery and enthusiasm of Mahmûd himself gained the victory.

The idol at *Sómnáth* was one of the 12 great lingas, or Phallic emblems of Siva, set up over India.

For one hundred years the shrine remained desolate. It was rebuilt by Komâr-Pâl, the great Jain, who died in A.D. 1166.

The treasure obtained was immense. Mahmûd remained in Gujarât a year. Delighted with this beautiful region, so different from his rocky and barren home, he seriously debated the possibility of settling there altogether. His homeward march was attended with terrible sufferings and privations.

Anhalwâra was the Tyre of India. Its commerce was very extended, and its population large. Its Jain Râja ruled over twenty-eight princes.

Death of Mahmûd of Ghazni, 1030.

§ 12. Mahmûd died at Ghaznî on the 29th April 1030, in his sixty-third year. Shortly before his death, he caused the vast treasures he had acquired to be brought and spread before him, and took his farewell of them with tears, but could not bring himself to distribute any portion of them to his old companions.

His fondness for treasures.

His character.

He was active, prudent, and enterprising; encouraged arts and literature, though habitually avaricious; and devoted large sums to the maintenance of a university and the support of learned men.

University in Ghazni. Learned men.

Among others, Ansarî and the renowned Firdûsî, the Persian Homer, flourished at his court. The latter celebrated his praises in the *Shâh Nâmah*.

He founded a mosque, which he called "the Celestial Bride," and which, for the splendour of its architecture and adornments, was the wonder of the East. His nobles and generals, too, incited by his example, vied with one another in the magnificence of their palaces; so that the bare crags of Ghaznî were converted by the wealth of India into the most magnificent city in the world. Ghazni becomes a splendid city.

§ 13. There was a contest for the throne between Muhammad and Masâud, the twin sons of Sultân Mahmûd. The former was first crowned, but speedily dethroned and blinded by Masâud. Successors of Mahmûd, 1030. His Twin Sons. Muhammad I.

The Seljuks, a Tûrkî tribe, now invaded Ghaznî, and Masâud was compelled to withdraw to India. We need not pursue the history of Ghaznî further; for the Muhammadan power was now at home in the Panjâb. Lâhôr had taken the place of Ghaznî. 1039. 1040.

§ 14. Masâud, who was generous and valiant, though unfortunate, was now dethroned, and the blind Muhammad again placed on the throne. In 1040, Maudûd, son of Masâud, overcame his rivals, and contrived to reinstate himself in Ghaznî. Masâud I. Maudûd, 1040-1049.

The Râja of Delhi meanwhile revived the spirit of the Hindûs, and drove the Muhammadans from every stronghold except Lâhôr itself. Sultân Abûl Rashîd, the eldest son of Mahmûd I., who had strangely succeeded his grand-nephew, in 1051 recovered the Panjâb. Soon after, all but three of the house of Mahmûd of Ghaznî were assassinated. 1043.

Masâud II., one of the three survivors, resided at Lâhôr, and carried the Muhammadan arms beyond the Ganges, 1098. Masâud II., 1098-1114.

§ 15. Beirâm, his son, succeeded in 1118. He was a patron of learning, and reigned long and prosperously; Beirâm the Ghaznivide,

1118-1153 (or Bahram).

His treachery.

The Sack of Ghazni, 1152.

[Jahân-Sôz.]

The Extinction of the Race of Mahmûd of Ghazni.

yet he achieved the ruin of his race by an act of treachery. Kutb-ud-dîn Sûr, the Prince of Ghôr, in the hills east of Herât, had married Beirâm's daughter. Some quarrel arose, and Beirâm murdered his son-in-law. The result was a war, in which *Allâ-ud-din Ghôrî*, a brother of the murdered prince, took Ghaznî, and gave it up for seven days to his victorious army, by whom it was utterly devastated. His name is thus handed down to us among those of the ruthless destroyers and scourges of the world. "Burner of the world" is his title in history.

Beirâm fled toward India, but died broken-hearted on his journey. His son Khûsrû and his grandson Khûsrû Malik reigned in Lâhôr to 1186; when, with the latter, the race of Sabaktegîn became extinct.

Nine princes of this family may be reckoned as, in some sense, rulers of a part of India.

PART III.—Muhammad of Ghôr, A.D. 1186–1206.

SECOND DYNASTY: THE GHÔRIANS.

Muhammad Ghôrî, 1186.

II. § **16.** Khûsrû Malik, the last of the Ghaznîvides, was dethroned and put to death by a nephew of the destroyer of Ghaznî, whose name was Shahâb-ud-dîn or *Muhammad Ghôrî*, the first and last of his family that ruled in India. This "soldier of fortune," a man of undaunted courage and irresistible energy, was the real founder of the Muhammadan dominion in Hindûstân.

After his conquest of Lâhôr in 1186, he had still to conquer the Râjpût princes of India. These were chivalrous and enthusiastic, but disunited and in many things frivolous. (Comp. ch. i. § 24–27.)

Hindûstân Proper had been till recently under the sway of four of these princes:—(1.) The King of Delhi of the Tomâra tribe; (2.) The King of Âjmîr of the Chohân tribe; (3.) The Râthôr chief of Kanauj; and (4.) The Baghila chief of Gujarât, whose capital was Anhalwâra. The Tomâra and Chohân tribes had just been united under Prithwî Râja, King of Âjmir; and it is said that 120 Hindu chiefs acknowledged him as their leader. Râjpût kings. [Resembling his contemporary, Richard I.]

With this prince, who was the Paladin of the Râjpût race, the Ghôrian fought his first battle on the plains of Pânipat, and sustained a complete defeat, in 1191. He then returned to Ghaznî, but, having assembled another army, in 1193 he again met his old antagonist, on the banks of the Saraswatî, not far from the former spot, between Tanêshwar and Kurnal. This time he was victorious, and Prithwî Râja, being made prisoner, was slain in cold blood. Âjmîr was then taken and sacked, and its inhabitants were either slain or sold as slaves. Muhammad after this went back to Ghaznî, leaving Kutb-ud-dîn, who had been his slave, as his viceroy. He returned the next year, defeated Jaichand, the Râthôr Râja of Kanauj, and took Kanauj and Benâres. Thus fell the second great Râjpût state. Pânipat. (First Battle.) (Sometimes called I. battle of Na-âin.) Decisive battle of Tanêshwar, 1194. (Comp. ch. i. §7; ch. ii. § 8.) Sometimes called the II. battle of *Tirûri*, or *Narâin*. Âjmir taken. Kanauj taken.

The Râthôrs fled to Mârwâr, where their descendants long reigned. The conquest of Gujarât, Oudh, Bengâl, and Bahâr soon followed; and before the death of Muhammad in 1206, there was a settled Muhammadan dominion over nearly the whole of Hindûstân, except Mâlwâ. Further conquests of the Ghôrian.

He was assassinated by a band of Gakkars, a wild tribe having their home in the mountains north of the Panjâb, and who had been subjected by him. With him Indian history ceases to have any connection with the Ghôrî dynasty. He is reckoned as the first Muhammadan king of Delhi. Death of Muhammad of Ghôr, 1206.

CH. II. § 17, 18. A.D. 1206.

III. Kutb-ud-din founds the slave dynasty.

Bhôja Râja of Ûjein.

§ 17. It was about this time that the celebrated Bhôja Râja died in Ûjein. (Ch. i. § 23.) His grandson was taken prisoner, and the country conquered by the Châlukya Râja of Gujarât; but it soon regained its independence.

Mâdhavâchârya, who founded a sect of Vaishnavas, whose great temple is at Udapi, in Tuluva, a little north of Mangalûr, was born in A.D. 1199.

PART IV.—The Slave-Kings, A.D. 1206–1288.

THE THIRD DYNASTY OF AFGHÂNS.

I. Kutb-ud-din. The slaves of the Ghôrians.

III. § 18. Muhammad of Ghôr, having no sons, was in the habit of training, and in fact adopting, young Tûrkî slaves taken in war, who were chiefly of noble extraction, and of promoting them to offices of trust. This was a common practice with other Muhammadan rulers also, and gave rise to the numerous dynasties of "Slave kings." Muhammad's nephew, Mahmûd, was his nominal successor; but Eldôz, one of these slaves, seized on Kâbul and Kandahâr, while another of them, Kutb-ud-dîn, retained possession of Delhi and the provinces subject to it. He is thus the first Muhammadan Emperor of Delhi, and *the founder of the Slave dynasty of Indian rulers.*

Or *Ildecus.*

=The pole-star of the faith.

[*Dehli*, or *Dilli.*]

1206.

The Muhammadan power advances step by step.

It has taken *two centuries* to advance the Muhammadan power from Ghaznî to Lâhôr, and from Lâhôr to Delhi. The Indian kingdom has henceforth only an occasional and accidental connection with the countries beyond the Sulaimân mountains.

The fortunes of Delhi, 1206 to 1858.

Delhi, the renowned Indraprashta, now for the first time made the metropolis of a Muhammadan kingdom, has since been occupied by kings of *seven* entirely distinct tribes; *fifty-one* individuals have received the title of supreme ruler in it; though *thirteen* of these had nothing but the name of sovereign; while, of the so-called kings, *twenty-one* were deposed, or murdered. The city has been once sacked by a *Tatâr*, and once by a *Persian*; twice occupied by the *Abdâlî*; for forty years it was under the entire control of the *Mahrattas*; from 1803 it has been subject to the *British*; and, finally, becoming the scene of an atrocious massacre, and the centre of a rebellion, it has been made an appendage of the Panjâb.

India in 1206, when Delhi became the capital of a Muhammadan Empire.

§ 19. As A.D. 1206 is thus a great æra in Indian history, it is desirable to take a survey of the whole country at that period.

The year A.D. 1206, an æra.

(1.) BENGÂL AND BAHÂR.—These had yielded (1203), without a struggle, to Bakhtiâr Khiljî, a slave of Kutb-ud-dîn. He removed the capital from Nuddea to Gour (or Lakhnauti), then a place of vast extent. The king of Bengâl at the time was Lakshman Sêna. (Ch. i. § 22.) These provinces never made an attempt in after days to shake off the Muhammadan yoke thus imposed upon them. Their next great change was in 1765. (Ch. ix. § 28.)

Bengâl and Bahâr in 1206.

[Comp. ch. iii. § 4, p. 81.]

(2.) MÂLWÂ was still independent. (§ 17.) It was not subdued by the Muhammadans till 1231, when Altamsh annexed it to Delhi. (§ 23.)

Mâlwâ.

(3.) The ÂJMÎR, KANAUJ, and DELHI kingdoms had been entirely subdued. (§ 16.) With Prithwî Râja the chivalry of these kingdoms seemed to die. These cities remained under the Musalmâns till they came under Christian England.

Hindû kingdoms.

(4.) ANHALWÂRA, capital of Gujarât, had been again taken in 1196 (§ 11) by Muhammad Ghôrî. It was finally destroyed by Allâ the Sanguinary. (§ 32.)

Gujarât.

(Sometimes called *Nehrwalla.*)

(5.) The *Bellâla* Râjas were reigning at Dwâra-Samudra, and the *Ándhras* at Warangal. (Ch. iv. § 9–12.) These divided the South of India.

The Dakhan.

Ch. xii. § 2.

(6.) A race allied to the *Bellâlas* had just established their dominion at *Dêogiri*. (Ch. iv. § 14, 15; xii. § 2.)

(*Daulatâbâd.*)

(7.) Sind was held by Nâsir-ud-dîn, another slave, had married a sister of Kutb, and who now ruled as his viceroy. (§ 23.)

Sind in 1206.

He was called Kubâcha.

GENEALOGICAL TABLE OF THE DYNASTY OF SLAVE KINGS.

[From the *second* to the eleventh Muhammadan King of Delhi.]

(Ch. ii. § 18–30.)

I. KUTB-UD-DÎN EIBAK,*

Founder of the Slave dynasty, the first *independent* Muhammadan ruler of Delhi. Viceroy, 1193–1206; independent, 1206–1210.

II. ARAM. 1210. (1 year.)

DAUGHTER = III. ALTAMSH. 1211–1236.

IV. RUKN-UD-DÎN 1236. (7 months.)

V. RAZÍA BEGUM. 1236–1239. (3 years 6 months.)

(SON)

VI. MOIZ-UD-DÎN BEIRÂM. 1239–1241. (2 years 2 months).

DAUGHTER = IX. GHEIÂZ-UD-DÎN BALBAN. 1266–1286.

VII. ALLÂ-UD-DÎN MASÂUD. 1241–1244. (4 years.)

VIII. NÂSIR-UD-DÎN MAHMÛD. 1244–1266.

BAGHRÂ or BAKARRA KHÂN, Viceroy of Bengâl.

X. KEI KOBAD. 1286–1288.

An infant son, murdered by Jalâl-ud-dîn.

MEMORANDA:—

1. This dynasty lasted eighty-two years.

2. KUTB, his son-in-law, ALTAMSH, and BALBAN, Altamsh's son-in-law, were all *slaves*.

3. During this period India happily escaped the destruction that befell Central and Western Asia from the Mogul hordes under Genghîz (Changiz) Khân.

4. EVENTS OF THE THIRTEENTH CENTURY:—John Lackland, 1199–1216; Henry III., 1272; Edward I., 1307; Magna Charter; Simon de Montfort; Conquest of Wales; Crusades; Guelfs and Ghibellines; Hanseatic League; Marco Polo, the traveller.

*=Broken finger (AIBAK).

§ 20. Kutb ruled about twenty years as viceroy, and four years independently after the death of Ghôrî. He was a great warrior, generous to his subjects, and faithful to his master. His generosity indeed passed into a proverb.

The lofty *Kutb Minar* in Delhi preserves his memory.

§ 21. His son *Âram* ruled for one year, and was dethroned by *Altamsh*. He was a weak ruler, and his viceroys everywhere rebelled against him.

II. Aram, 1210, 1211.

§ 22. *Altamsh*, the greatest of the dynasty, was a slave of Kutb, who had given him his daughter in marriage. He reigned from A.D. 1211 to 1236. His real name was Shams-ud-dîn.

III. Altamsh, 1211-1236.

Altamsh signifies *sixty*, that being the number of tomams paid for him by Kutb.

It was in 1217 that the alarm reached India of the advance of the Moguls under Ghengîz Khân, who had gained the supremacy over all the Tâtâr tribes, and in 1210 was acknowledged Khân of the Tâtârs from the wall of China to the Volga. He overran all Central and Western Asia, and in his course overthrew Muhammad, the Sultân of Kharîsm, who had slain his ambassadors. Muhammad's son, Jalâl-ud-dîn, contested every inch of ground with the Moguls, until driven to the Indus. He there fought a great battle, and, being defeated, took refuge in India. Altamsh courteously but firmly refused by protecting him to afford to Ghengîz Khân a pretext for invading India. Thus, for the time, India escaped the ravages of the Moguls. These attacks were, however, constantly repeated, till they became successful in 1526.

Ghengiz Khân, 1217. [*Changiz.*]

(*Kharism* or *Khiva*, the antient *Chorasmia*, N.W. of Balkh.)

The wise conduct of Altamsh saves India from a Mogul invasion.

§ 23. Altamsh now subdued Nâsir-ud-dîn and Gheiâz-ud-dîn, a successor of Bhaktiyâr Khiljî, who had made themselves independent in Sind and Bengâl.

The victories of Altamsh. (Comp. § 19.)

1231. He also reduced Rintambôr in Râjpûtâna, Mândû, Gwâliôr, and Ûjein; and subdued Chahâr Dêva, Râja of Marwâr, who was now the chief of the Hindû princes. With these victories he completed the subjugation of Hindûstân. He received investiture from the Khalîf of Baghdâd. He died in 1236.

His death in 1236.

IV. Rukn-ud-din, 1236. § 24. *Rukn-ud-dîn* succeeded his father, and was deposed in seven months by his sister Razîa. He was licentious, cruel, and imbecile.

V. Raziâ Begum, 1236-1239. Sixth Muhammadan ruler of Delhi. § 25. *Razîa* Begum was a beautiful and well-educated woman, and an energetic and skilful ruler. She is remarkable as the only female who has personally ruled in Delhi. Nûr Jehân's name was added to that of her husband's on the coins (iii. § 7); and Queen Victoria is "Empress of India"; but Raziâ was the only queen that ever actually occupied the throne of the Indian empire. Dressed in a tunic and cap like a man, she sat daily administering justice. Her fondness for favourites marred the effect of her virtues and talents. A Tûrkî chief called Altûnia rebelled, defeated her, and took her prisoner. She won over her captor, and married him; but the nobles carried on the civil war, which ended in the defeat and death of herself and her husband. She reigned three years and six months. India was now a prey to rapine, full of rebellions, reduced almost to desolation.

1239.

VI. Beirâm, 1239-1241. § 26. Beirâm, her brother, a weak and cruel man, succeeded. The Moguls now invaded Lâhôr, and he was imprisoned and slain by his owu soldiers, after a reign of two years and two months.

VII. Masâud III., 1241-1244. § 27. Masâud, son of Rukn-ud-dîn, succeeded. Two invasions of the Moguls were repelled in this reign.

III. The Slave dynasty. Balban.

CH. II. § 28, 29. A.D. 1241, 66.

He was cruel and licentious, and was deposed after a reign of four years.

§ 28. Nâsir-ud-dîn Mahmûd was a grandson of Altamsh, and was of retired and studious habits. Affairs were left in the hands of a Tûrkî slave of Altamsh, called Gheiâz-ud-dîn Balban, who had married an aunt of the emperor, and whose daughter Mahmûd himself had married. The emperor led the life of a dervish, and defrayed all his personal expenses by copying books. He kept no servant, and the queen performed all the duties of the household.

The best of the dynasty, often called Mahmûd II.

VIII. Mahmûd II., 1244–1266.

The invasions of the Moguls continued, but were successfully repelled. Various Hindû chiefs had rebelled during the late reigns; these were again reduced to obedience, and especially the Râja of Narwâr (§ 23) was overthrown.

Moguls defeated. Rebels subdued.

An embassy was sent by Hulâkû Khân, grandson of Ghengîz Khân, and the destroyer of the Baghdâd Khalifate, to Mahmûd's court. It was received with great pomp. Mahmûd died in 1266, after a prosperous reign of more than twenty years.

Embassy from the Mogul Chief.

Death of Nâsir-ud-dîn Mahmûd, 1266.

§ 29. *Balban* (or Balin) succeeded, having long possessed all the kingly power. Originally a slave, he had, in the reign of Altamsh, entered into a covenant of mutual support with forty other slaves, who rose, most of them, to high stations. He now put most of these to death, placed none but the highly-born in positions of trust, and in every act of his government manifested a selfish and narrow mind.

IX. Balban, 1266–1286. The Slaves' compact.

Many kings, driven from their kingdoms by the Moguls, took refuge at this time in Delhi.

Kings in exile.

Prince Muhammad, his eldest son, was a great patron of literature. Amîr Khûsrû, a Persian poet, resided at his court, and Sâdî, the greatest of Persian authors, sent him a copy of his works.

Literary characters.

Insurrections in Râjpûtâna and Bengâl.

Mêwât was, as usual, in a state of disorder and insurrection. To quell this, Balban is said to have slain 100,000 men. He also wisely cleared it of forests, and thus laid it open to cultivation. A revolt in Bengâl, made by Tughral, the governor, was also crushed.

Death of the Heir-apparent.

The great misfortune of Balban's life was the death of Muhammad, the heir-apparent, who fell in opposing an irruption of the Moguls into his vice-royalty of the Panjâb. Balban died of grief in his eightieth year.

He has been the subject of excessive praise and blame from differing writers.

Disputed succession.

§ 30. Balban's second son was Baghrâ (or Bakarra) Khân, Viceroy of Bengâl, to whom, in fact, independent powers had been given. The late king had appointed Kei Khûsrû, son of Prince Muhammad, his heir; but the Omrahs, to avoid a civil war, placed Kei Kobad, son of Baghrâ Khân, on the throne, while Khûsrû went to his father's government of Mûltân.

X. Kei Kobad, 1286–1288. [Kaikubâd.]

Kei Kobad was eighteen years of age at his accession, and was entirely under the influence of his Vazîr, Nizâm-ud-dîn, who encouraged him in every vice. Aiming at the throne, he procured the assassination of Kei Khûsrû. Baghrâ Khân, hearing of the state of affairs, marched with an army from Bengâl to rescue his son from the influence of the crafty Vazîr. Nizâm-ud-dîn induced the king to go forth to oppose his father; and, when the latter insisted on an interview with his son, imposed upon him so many humiliating ceremonies, that the old man burst into tears. Kei Kobad, overcome at the sight of his weeping father, sprang from the throne, and embraced him. Though a reconciliation thus took place between the father and the son, Baghrâ Khân found that he could not combat the influence of the infamous Nizâm-ud-dîn, and soon returned to Bengâl. Kei Kobad plunged anew into debaucheries, which

The evil Vazir.

Meets his father.

Death of Kei Kobad, 1288.

ended in an attack of palsy. Alive now to the wicked designs of the minister, he caused him to be poisoned, but was himself assassinated by Jelâl-ud-dîn, head of the Khiljî tribe, in 1288.

The Vazîr slain, and the Emperor.

Thus ended the "*Dynasty of the slaves of the Sultân of Ghôr.*"

PART V.—The Tatâr Khiljîs, A.D. 1288-1321.

THE FOURTH AFGHÂN DYNASTY.

I. Jelâl-ud-dîn Khiljî, 1288 (sometimes called *Ghiljie*).

IV. § 31. *Jelâl-ud-dîn Khiljî*, or Ferôz Shâh, was the founder of the next dynasty of Afghân kings, and the twelfth Muhammadan king of Delhi. He is supposed to have put to death the infant son of Kei Kobad; and then, with affected reluctance, to have mounted the throne. No other crime is laid to his charge. Clemency, degenerating into weakness, was the characteristic of his government. Invasions of the Moguls were made and repelled, as in the former reigns.

His character.

Moguls.

1294. First Muhammadan invasion of the Dakhan. (Karrah, on the S.W. side of the Ganges, 45 miles N.W. from Alâhâbâd.)

The chief event of the reign, however, is the invasion of the Dakhan by his nephew Allâ-ud-dîn Khiljî, governor of Karrah. Setting out with 8,000 chosen horse, the invader crossed the Nerbudda, and made for Dêogiri, where Râm Dêo Râo Jadow, a prince of great power and influence, was reigning. He easily subdued the Hindú prince. The spoil taken was immense, and a large ransom was paid by the Râja. (Ch. iv. § 15, 16.) This was just a century after the battle of Tanêshwar, which gave the Ghôrians possession of Delhi (1194). Allâ-ud-dîn also took and sacked Ellichpûr.

(§ 16.) [*Jadow* is a corruption of Yâdava.]

On his return, which took place after an absence of less than a month, he contrived that his aged uncle

1295. Assassination of Jelâl-ud-dîn, 1295.

should meet him almost unattended; and while the old man was patting his cheek affectionately, and assuring him of his confidence, Allâ gave the signal to a band of assassins, who stabbed him to the heart, cut off his head, and carried it on a pole through the camp.

Jelâl-ud-dîn was seventy-seven years old at the time of his death, having reigned seven years.

II. Allâ-ud-din Khilji, the Sanguinary. 1295-1317. The 13th king.

§ 32. The extraordinary man whose crimes had now placed him on the throne of Delhi has gained for himself the title of "the sanguinary;" but his reign of twenty-one years may be considered to have been, on the whole, successful, if not glorious.

Murders.

(1.) His first act, when seated on the throne, was to murder the two sons of Jelâl-ud-dîn.

Efforts to reign well.

(2.) He then strove to efface the remembrance of the crimes by which he had won the empire by the excellence of his administration. He learnt to read and write, and became the patron of learned men. But his avarice and fierce temper marred the effect of his general policy of conciliation.

Gujarât subdued, 1297. (§ 19.)

(3.) In 1297 he sent an army to bring Gujarât, which had regained its freedom, finally under the yoke. Pattan, or Anhalwâra, was now utterly destroyed.

The Infamous Malik Kâfûr, 1298.

(4.) The most memorable result of this conquest of Gujarât was the capture of a handsome young eunuch, a slave, called Malik Kâfûr; who, coming into the king's possession, speedily rose to the highest offices; became the scourge of the Dakhan, and at last the murderer of the blood-stained Allâ.

Koula Dêvî, the wife of the Râja of Gujarât, and said to be the handsomest woman in India, was also taken captive.

The Moguls.

(5.) In 1298 occurred another and more serious Mogul invasion. Two hundred thousand horsemen marched upon Delhi, committing every species of

atrocity on their way. Allâ went out to oppose them, and with the aid of his able general, Zafur Khân, inflicted on them a terrible chastisement. But Zafur Khân had distinguished himself too greatly; and the jealous Allâ contrived to leave him unsupported during the pursuit, so that he was cut off, dying with a bravery worthy of his reputation. There were several other Mogul irruptions in this reign. The invaders were unsuccessful, and vast numbers of them perished in these attempts.

The general Zafur Khân.

Betrayed by his jealous master.

(6.) In 1299 Allâ's nephew, Prince Soleimân, made an attempt to imitate his example, and to assassinate his uncle. Allâ was left for dead, but, recovering his senses, rode into camp wounded as he was, confronted the usurper, who, forsaken by the army, was seized and put to death. Two other nephews rebelled, and were first blinded and then beheaded.

Attempt to assassinate Allâ, 1299.

(7.) The conquest of Rintambôr, in 1300, and of Chîtôr in 1303, established his power in Râjpûtâna. The Râjpûts, as usual, when driven to despair, put their wives and children to death, and then met death among the enemy. This they call JOHAR. Padmanî, the queen, a woman of exquisite beauty, with the wives of all the warriors, threw herself on the funeral pile prepared in the centre of the fated city. Chîtôr eventually came into the hands of the son of the former Râja, the ancestor of the present Râna of Oudipûr.

Râjpûtâna, 1300–1303.

The *Johar*.

Chitôr.

(8.) Malik Kâfûr made four great expeditions into the Dakhan in 1306, 1309, 1310, and 1312, from which he brought back immense treasures to Delhi. (Ch. iv. § 16; xii. § 2.)

Malik Kâfûr in the Dakhan.

In one of these expeditions the Princess Dêwal Dêvî, daughter of the Râja, was captured. She was afterwards married to Khizr Khân, eldest son of Allâ. Their history is the subject of a popular poem.

(9.) The year 1311 was marked by another of Allâ's

Assassination of Moguls, 1311.

(Compare Ethelred the Unready, and the Danes.)

"sanguinary" acts. There was a great multitude of Mogul converts in his pay. These he suddenly dismissed; and, on their raising a disturbance, he caused 15,000 of them to be massacred, and their families sold as slaves.

Kâfûr's pernicious influence.

(10.) Kâfûr now acquired absolute power over Allâ's mind, which, as well as his body, was giving way under the influence of habitual intemperance. He became jealous of every one, imprisoned his queen and his two eldest sons, and caused his brother Alaf Khân, and his great general Alp Khân, to be murdered. Rebellions broke out, and in the midst of these Kâfûr hastened the king's death by poison.

Allâ is poisoned, 1317.

His mixed character.

(11.) Allâ was not without genius; but his want of mental discipline and judgment led him into the wildest schemes. He sometimes contemplated proclaiming himself a second Muhammad; and, at other times, aimed at universal conquest, and assumed the title of the second Alexander. His character reminds us, in some aspects, of Haidar Alî; and, in others, of Tippû, his son.

His sayings.

Two of his sayings are recorded:—"Religion has no connection with civil government, but is only the business, or rather amusement, of civil life;" and "The will of a wise prince is better than the opinions of variable bodies of men."

III. Mubârik Khiljî.

§ 33. Kâfûr now placed the youngest son of Allâ, an infant, named Ômar, on the throne. He then blinded the two eldest sons of Allâ, and sent assassins to murder Mubârik, the third son. But Mubârik gained over the army, put Kâfûr to death, and ascended the throne. His first acts were to put out the eyes of his infant brother, and to murder the officers to whom he was indebted for his own preservation. He then made Khûsrû Khân, a converted Parwârî slave from Gujarât, his Vazîr.

Kâfûr's death.

Khûsrû Khân.

V. The Fifth Afghân dynasty. House of Tughlak. Gheiâz-ud-dîn I. CHAP. II. § 34. A.D. 1321, 5.

His first measures were meritorious. He released 17,000 persons imprisoned by his father, and strove to undo the effects of his arbitrary acts. — His first measures.

He then marched to the Dakhan, seized Harpâl, the rebellious son-in-law of Râm Dêo, and flayed him alive. — The Dakhan.

The remainder of his reign was spent in unspeakable debaucheries. — Infamous debauchery.

Khûsrû, in whose hands all power was placed, made a successful expedition to Malabâr, returned with abundant spoil to Delhi, assassinated his master, and exterminated his whole family. — Mubârik assassinated by Khûsrû, 1321. (Ch. iv. § 18.)

Thus perished the last of the Khiljî family, after a dominion in Delhi of thirty-three years. (From 1288 to 1321.) — The whole dynasty lasted but 33 years.

PART VI.—The House of Tughlak, A.D. 1321–1412.

THE FIFTH AFGHÂN DYNASTY.

V. § 34. The infamous Khûsrû was himself put to death by Gheiâz-ud-dîn Tughlak, Governor of the Panjâb, who by universal consent ascended the throne. He was the son of a Tûrkî slave of Balban, by a woman of the Jât tribe. The army, as is usually the case in such revolutions, were the chief instruments in his elevation; but, as no single member of the royal house survived, the new ruler was saved from the crimes that generally attend a change of dynasty. — Death of Khûsrû, 1321. I. Gheiâz-ud-dîn Tughlak, 1321–1325.

Now came the expedition to Telingâna, under his son Jûna Khân (or *Jonah*). (Ch. iv. § 19.) — Dakhan. (Or Alaf Khân.) 1322.

The king himself at this time paid a visit to Bengâl, which was still under Baghrâ Khân (§ 30), son of Balban, his old master, to examine into complaints of — Bengâl. 1325. [Sometimes called Kurrah, or Kêra.]

CHAP. II. § 36. 1325, 47.

V. Jûna Khân Tughlak, or Sultân Muhammad III., the magnificent madman.

oppression. The venerable viceroy, who had outlived the whole dynasty that supplanted his own family in Delhi, was confirmed in his authority; and the royal umbrella was formally conceded to him by the son of his father's slave!

His death, 1325.

On his return the emperor met with his death by the fall of a magnificent pavilion, erected for him by his son Jûna, whose opportune absence threw upon him a grave suspicion of being the contriver of his father's death.

II. Jûna Khân Tughlak, 1325.

§ 36. Jûna, on his accession, assumed the title of Sultân Muhammad Tughlak; and is regarded as the nineteenth Muhammadan king of Delhi.

His character.

He was a prince of unrivalled munificence; eloquent, accomplished, learned in Arabic, Persian, Greek philosophy, mathematics, and physical science. He was a strict Muhammadan, moral, brave, and energetic. Yet his wild schemes, and his general conduct as a ruler, show him to us rather in the light of one insane, than as a man possessed of these various excellences and accomplishments.

Inconsistent.

He buys off the Moguls.

(1.) His first act was (after the manner of Ethelred the Unready) to buy off the Moguls, who had as usual invaded the Panjâb.

His expedition into the Dakhan.

(2.) He then made an expedition into the Dakhan, which for the time he reduced to order.

1326.

Invasion of Persia.

(3.) His next plan was to invade Persia; but his vast army was disbanded after the consumption of all his treasure.

Attempted invasion of China.

(4.) He then projected the conquest of China, whose spoils were to replenish his coffers. A hundred thousand men marched across the Himâlayas; but attacked by the Chinese, and worn out with fatigue and famine, hardly a man returned.

Meddles with the currency.

(5.) He then strove to introduce copper tokens, as an approach to a paper currency, which he had heard of

as existing in China. But as his government was insolvent, this, of course, only added to his own embarrassments and to the sufferings of his subjects.

Extermination of people.

(6.) When the people, driven to despair by his exactions, fled to the woods, he more than once ordered out his troops and hunted them down, thus exterminating the inhabitants of large districts.

Rebellion of Bengâl, 1340.

(7.) At this time Bengâl rebelled, and remained independent until the accession of Shîr Shâh. (Ch. iii. § 4.)

Rebellion in Mâlwâ, 1347.

(8.) Now also arose that celebrated rebellion in Gujarât which led to the establishment of the Bâhmanî kingdom in the Dakhan. The Governor of Mâlwâ had treacherously massacred forty Mogul Amîrs; when the remainder rebelled, took refuge in the Dakhan, and made common cause with other Mogul Amîrs there. The king in person went against them, defeated them, and shut them up in Daulatâbâd; but was suddenly recalled to Gujarât by tidings of more serious disturbances there.

General insurrection in the Dakhan, 1347.

His departure was the signal for a general rise in the Dakhan. The insurgents had proclaimed Ishmael Khân their king; but he, feeling his inability to command in such critical times, resigned in favour of Zuffir Khân. (Ch. iv. § 20.)

Death of Muhammad III., 1351.

(9.) Jûna Khân (or Sultân Muhammad), who had pursued the Gujarât rebels to Tatta in Sind, died there in 1351, after a reign of about twenty-seven years. His death was caused, like that of the English Henry I., by eating fish to excess.

Transfer of capital to Dowlatâbâd, or Dêogiri.

(10.) One of his many freaks was the attempt to transfer the seat of empire from Delhi to Daulatâbâd. He compelled the people of Dehli to migrate to the new capital, and many thousands perished in this insane attempt, which was afterwards abandoned.

(11.) Another whim of his was to procure a confir-

mation of his title, to the kingdom from the nominal Khalîf of Egypt, who now was looked upon as the head of Islâm. On obtaining this, he struck out from the records of the kingdom the names of all his predecessors.

Ibn Batuta.

(12.) In 1341, a traveller from Tanjiers, *Ibn Batuta*, visited Delhi. He was received with great respect, and appointed to the office of judge by the king. Seeing, however, some evidences of Muhammad's capricious and cruel temper, he resigned his office. The king, without taking offence, attached him to an embassy to China, and thus honourably dismissed him. His accounts of Indian affairs are highly interesting.

His history.

III. Ferôz Tughlak, 1351–1388.

§ 37. Jûna Khân, or Muhammad III., was succeeded by his nephew *Ferôz-ud-dîn Tughlak*, who reigned from 1351 to 1388, when he died at the age of ninety, ten years before the invasion of India by Teimûr.

Embassies.

He received embassies from both Bengâl and the Dakhan, thus acknowledging the independence of those provinces.

Great public works.

His reign was marked by a course of humane and liberal legislation. He greatly promoted the erection of public works of every kind; the most important of these being the canal that goes by his name, running from the head-waters of the Jamna to Hissar. Ferôz-pûr, near the Satlaj, was founded by him.

IV. Gheiâz-ud-din II.

V. Abu-bekr, 1389.

§ 38. He was succeeded by his grandsons, *Gheiâz-ud-dîn* and *Âbu-bekr*, who reigned for five months and one month respectively. Both were deposed, and the former murdered.

VI. Nâsir-ud-din, 1390–1394.

Then *Nâsir-ud-dîn Tughlak*, eldest son of Ferôz, who had assisted in the government in his father's time, and had been expelled for mismanagement, returned and dethroned his nephew. He reigned from 1390 to 1394.

His son Humâyûn succeeded him, but died at the end of forty-five days, and another brother, Mahmûd Tughlak, ascended the throne in 1394. Death of Nâsir-ud-din.

§ 39. Mahmûd was a child, and was the most insignificant of the whole series. His nominal reign lasted till 1412 A.D.; but, before that time, *the kingdom of Delhi had in fact ceased to exist.* Four provinces had rebelled—Mâlwâ, Gujarât, Kândêsh, and Jounpûr. Delhi itself was torn with civil strife. VII. Muhammad Tughlak, 1394–1412.

The Dakhan was wasted by a terrible famine, called by the natives Dûrgâ Dêvî, which lasted twelve years from 1396.

In the midst of all came the Tâtâr chief Teimûr Lenc (Tamerlane, *Teimûr* the lame); laid Hindûstân waste, and was declared Emperor of Delhi. His son, Pîr Muhammad, took Ooch and Mûltân, 1397. Teimûr the Tâ(r)târ, 1398.

§ 40. The temporary independence of Mâlwâ dates from about A.D. 1401. Dilâwar Khân Ghôrî was its first king. He was succeeded by Hoshung (Hûshang) Ghôrî (1405–1432). He built Mândû, whose ruins attest its former extent and grandeur, and removed the capital from Dhâr, where Râja Bhôja had fixed it, to that place. (Ch. i. § 23.) (Comp. ch. iii. § 3, for the history of Medni Râî.) This kingdom was annexed by Bahâdar Shâh of Gujarât in 1526–1531. (§ 41.) Mâlwâ, 1401.

In 1440 Râna Khumbo of Mêwâr conquered the Kings of Mâlwâ and Gujarât, and erected the Jaya Stamba, or pillar of victory, at Chitôr. § 4. ch. iii. § 3. (12).

§ 41. Gujarât became independent in the year 1391 under Muzaffir Shâh. He was continually at war with Mâlwâ. In 1398, on Teimûr's invasion, Mahmûd Tughlak fled to Gujarât, but was ill received. From thence he went to Mâlwâ. Gujarât, 1391. (Comp. ch. iii. § 4.)

Muzaffir's grandson was Ahmed Shâh (1416–1459), who built Ahmednagar and Ahmedâbâd. He was con- Ahmed Shâh of Gujarât, 1416.

tinually at war with the Râjpûts. Mahmûd Bêgara succeeded to the throne in 1459 and reigned till 1511. (Comp. ch. vi. § 10.)

Bahâdar Shâh reigned from 1526–1537. (Ch. vi. § 16.) He conquered Mâlwâ. (Comp. ch. iii. § 4.)

Jounpûr (*Jaunpûr, Juanpoor*), 1394–1476. (On the banks of the Gûmti, about 42 miles from Benâres.)

§ 42. Jounpûr was rendered independent by Khâja (or Kwâjah) Jehân (whose title was Malik-us-Shark, and whose dynasty was thence called the *Sharki*), the Vazîr of Mahmûd Tughlak. Its territory extended from Kanauj north-west to the boundary of Bengâl, and South Bahâr south-east. This kingdom was a formidable rival to Delhi, which city was twice besieged by its armies. Its independence lasted from 1394–1474. Ibrâhîm Shâh Sharkî, who succeeded in 1401, greatly aggrandised the kingdom, and in his time the city became one of the finest in India.

Taimûr, 1398.

§ 43. Taimûr greatly resembled Ghengiz Khân; but unlike him was a man of great intellect and very considerable learning. He was a Turk, and had subdued all Central and Western Asia. His chief cities were Bokhâra and Samarkhand. His tomb is in the latter. He reached Delhi in December, 1398.

Massacre in Delhi, December 13.

There he first massacred all his prisoners above fifteen years of age, a vast multitude. He then gave up Delhi itself to indiscriminate pillage. This led to a general massacre, which lasted five days, during which the monster feasted, and enjoyed the sight. He then proceeded to a mosque to "offer up his sincere and humble tribute of praise to the Divine Majesty!" He afterwards proceeded to Mîrut, where a like tragedy was acted; and thence to Hardwâr and Jamna; and so left India, taking with him an immense booty and an innumerable crowd of slaves.

Mîrut.

He leaves India, March 1399.

§ 44. Delhi remained desolate for some time after his departure; but at length *Mahmûd* was nominally restored, and died there in 1412. Mahmûd restored.

Nusrat Khân, a nephew of Ferôz (§ 37) was actually set up as rival emperor by some disaffected Omrahs; but was supplanted by Mullu Ikbâl Khân, who got the weak emperor into his hands. After the departure of Teimûr, Nusrat Khân (who is even included in the list of emperors) Ikbâl Khân, and the Sultân of Jaunpûr were the most powerful leaders; and while they contended with one another, the poor weak Mahmûd was sometimes in the power of the one, and sometimes of the other, till brought back to Delhi by Daulah Khân Lôdî.

WITH HIM ENDED THE TUGHLAK DYNASTY, which was the last of the dynasties of the so-called *Slave kings*.

§ 45. DAULAT KHÂN LÔDÎ. This chief, for fifteen months after the death of Mahmûd, retained possession of Delhi, without however assuming the insignia of royalty, and coining money in the name of the late Ferôz (§ 37); but was expelled in 1414 by *Khizr Khân*, viceroy of the Panjâb. DAULAT KHÂN LÔDÎ, 1413.

PART VII.—THE SEIADS, A.D. 1414–1450.

THE SIXTH DYNASTY.

VI. § 46. THE FOUR SEIADS. From 1414–1450 Delhi was held by four rulers, who professed to regard themselves as Viceroys of the Mogul. They scarcely possessed any territory beyond the walls of Delhi. THE SEIADS, 1414–1450. [Or Syud, or Sayyid = descendant of Muhammad.]

Their names were—

(1.) SEIAD KHIZR KHÂN—1414–1421; who (or, rather, his excellent minister, Tâj-ul-mulk), was just and generous; and for whom, when he died, all Delhi wore black for three days;

(2.) SEIAD MUBÂRIK—1421–1435; who was benevolent, and of most amiable temper; but was murdered by some Hindû assassins;

(3.) SEIAD MUHAMMAD—1435–1444; of whom nothing can be said but that he was a weak and dissolute prince, in whose reign, if reign it can be called, there were continual tumults; and

(4.) SEIAD ALLÂ-UD-DÎN—1444–1450, or Âlam Shâh, who, driven out by Behlûl Lodî, abdicated and lived peacefully in Budâon.

PART VIII.—THE LODÎS, A.D. 1450–1526.

THE SEVENTH DYNASTY.

THE LODÎS, 1450–1526.

§ 47. THE THREE KINGS OF THE HOUSE OF LODÎ—the last of the Afghân dynasties.

The Lodîs were a powerful family, and had excited the jealousy of preceding kings.

I. BEHLÛL LODÎ, 1450–1488 (OR BELÔL).

(1.) BEHLÛL, a man of immense vigour, had gained possession of Sirhind and the Panjâb, and now drove Seiad Allâ-ud-dîn from Dehli. He afterwards conquered Jaunpûr, after twenty-six years of war. He reigned from 1450–1488.

II. SIKANDER LODÎ, 1488–1518.

(2.) His son, SIKANDER LODÎ, succeeded him, and reigned to 1518. He re-annexed Bahâr; but the kingdom was now little more than a number of nearly independent principalities. He fought against his brother Bârbak, to whom Jaunpûr had been assigned, and who strove to obtain the empire.

[The conquest of Granada, 1492.]

Sikander was in many respects an excellent and accomplished prince; but a fierce persecutor of the Hindûs.

VIII. The Lodis. Pânipat.

CH. II. § 47, 48. A.D. 1518-26.

It was about this time that *Rámánand*, a great Vaishnava teacher lived at Banâres; a little later, in the same reign, lived the reformer *Kabír*, who taught the unity of the Deity.

During this reign the Portuguese landed in Calicut. (Ch. vi. § 2.) Sikander made Âgra his capital.

May 22, 1498.

(3.) His son *Ibrâhîm* was unlike his father. He disgusted the chiefs by his haughtiness and cruelty.

III. Ibrâhîm Lodî, 1518-1526.

One of them, Daulat Khân Lodî, governor of the Panjâb, called in Sultân Bâber, the Tatâr ruler of Kâbal; who took Lâhôr, burnt the city, and then advanced on Delhi with an army of 12,000 men. Ibrâhîm met him at Pânipat with a much larger army; but was killed in the battle, which ended in the complete triumph of Bâber.

Bâber called in.

(Second) Battle of Pânipat. (About 50 miles N. by W. from Delhi.)

About this time lived the celebrated *Vallabha Áchárya*, who introduced the worship of Bâla Gopâla, the infant Krishṇa, and spread his doctrines as far as Vijayanagar.

§ 48. Thus ended the dynasties of the Afghâns, (Tûrks or Tatârs), who, under different names, had ruled a large portion of Hindûstân, making Delhi or Âgra the seat of government, for 320 years. (1206–1526.)

The end of the Afghân Dynasties, 1526.

About the same time the great Bâhmini kingdom of Kulbûrga was broken up into five parts. (Ch. iv. § 21.)

The Bâhmini kingdom also dismembered.

CHAPTER III.

THE MOGUL EMPERORS OF INDIA, A.D. 1526-1857.

PART I.—Introductory.

1526-1748.

§ 1. The second battle of Pânipat opened India to Bâber and his Patâns. From the accession of Bâber, who was thus the founder of the *Mogul dynasty*, to the death of Muhammad Shâh, the twelfth emperor of this dynasty, was 222 years.

Character of the whole dynasty.

No royal family in history has produced such a series of distinguished rulers, splendid and great; though not certainly good, according to our ideas of goodness.

The summary of the chapter.

§ 2. This chapter will trace the history of this powerful line of emperors from Bâber, the founder, to Muhammad Bahâdar Shâh, the last that bore the title of King of Delhi, who died in prison, in a distant land, dishonoured and unpitied. (Ch. x. § 28.)

The following table is given for reference:—

Table of Mogul Emperors, 1526-1857.

The Mogul Emperors.

¶ I.	Bâber	1526–1530	This period was marked by a series of wonderful men in every part of the world.
II.	Humâyûn	1530–1556	He was in exile sixteen years.
III.	Akbar	1556–1605	Came to the throne two years before Queen Elizabeth, and survived her two years.
IV.	Jehângîr	1605–1627	Sir T. Roe. Nûr Jehân.
V.	Shâh Jehân	1627–1658	The architect. Dethroned.
VI.	Aurungzîb (or Alamgîr I.)	1658–1707	The deceitful and bigoted; the last of the great Moguls.

The six great Mogul Emperors. 1526–1707.

¶ VII.	Shâh Âlam I. (or Bahâdar Shâh)	1707–1712	Concession to the Mahrattas.
VIII.	Jehândâr Shâh	1712–1713	The Seiads. Murdered.
IX	Farukhshîr	1713–1719	The Peshwâs. Assassinated.
X.	Rafi-ud-darajât	1719–Feb.	Mere puppets of the Seiads, removed by poison or disease within three months.
XI.	Rafi-ud-daula	1719–May	
XII.	Muhammad Shâh	1719–1748	The Empire broke up. Nâdir Shâh.

The six emperors of the falling empire. 1707–1748.

The five entirely dependent emperors, or kings. 1748–1857.

¶ XIII. Ahmad Shâh	1748–1754	Blinded and deposed.
XIV. Alamgîr II.	1754–1759	Plassey. Murdered.
XV. Shâh Âlam II. . . .	1759–1806	Rescued by Lord Lake.
XVI. Akbar II.	1806–1837	A mere pensioner.
XVII. Muhammad Bahâdar .	1837–1857	The helper of the mutineers.

PART II.—BÂBER.

I. BÂBER. Summary of Bâber's history. 1482–1530.

§ 3. (1.) SULTÂN BÂBER demands our especial attention, as being the founder of the Mogul Indian Empire, and the first of a dynasty of renowned emperors, under whom India rose to the highest apparent prosperity.

(2.) Bâber was born A.D. in 1482
became King of Kokhân in 1494
conquered Samarkhand in . . . . . 1497 } 22
driven away, after many struggles, again occupied Kâbul in 1504
again in Samarkhand in 1511
lost all, but Bactria, in 1514
gained Kandahâr in . . . . . 1522 } 22
called in by D. K. Lôdî in 1524
won the (first) battle of Pânipat in . . 1526
subdued the Râjpûts in 1527–28
conquered Bahâr and Bengâl in . . . 1529 } 4
and died in 1530

48

(120 miles E. of Bokhâra.)

Bâber's descent.

(3.) He was descended, on the father's side, from Teimûr (Tamerlane) the Tatâr; but his mother was a Mogul, connected with the tribe of Genghîz Khân. This race was detested by him; yet, strange to say, from it his dynasty got the name, now generally corrupted into *Mogul*. It is variously spelt Moghul, Mughal, and Mogal.

(4.) His real name was Zahir-ud-din-Muhammad (=the light of the faith). Name.

He assumed (1507) the title *Pâdshâh*, a Persian word, signifying *king*; and this became the characteristic title of the Mogul Emperors.

Bâber, i.e. "the lion," was originally an epithet applied to him for his bravery. (Comp. Richard *Cœur-de-Lion*.)

(5.) Different members of Teimûr's family held Samarkhand, Bokhâra, Balkh (Bactria), Kâbul, and Kokhân (then Farghânah). This last was Bâber's hereditary dominion. The race of Teimûr.

(6.) His life, till 1524, was a succession of struggles, in the course of which he sometimes extended his sway as far as to Kandahâr, and at other times was a fugitive; thrice occupying his paternal city of Samarkhand, and being thrice expelled from it. A life of vicissitudes.

(7.) His uncertain tenure of power in those wild regions caused him to turn his attention to India, which had now for some time been in a state of anarchy; the Lôdîs possessing little beyond Delhi and Âgra. He was invited by one of the revolted chiefs, Daulat Khân Lôdî, viceroy of the Panjâb, to seize upon India, which he considered to be his inheritance, as he was descended from the conqueror Teimûr. It was not, however, until after four unsuccessful expeditions (1519–26) that he gained his end. Bâber's first attempts on India. Ch. ii. § 47. Unsuccessful expeditions.

(8.) The (SECOND) battle of Pânipat (Ch. ii. § 47) gave him nothing but the small tract around Delhi and Âgra. Results of the battle of Pânipat.

From the spoils of Âgra he sent a coin of the value of about tenpence to every man, woman, and child, slave or free, in the district of Kâbul, where he had reigned for twenty-two years; besides rich gifts to the chief Muhammadan shrines in Asia. Distribution of spoil.

(9.) The other parts of the so-called Empire were still held by revolted chieftains. From the time of the magnificent madman Muhammad Tughlak (1351), there had been no real empire of Delhi. (Ch. ii. § 36.) State of the Empire at the period of the Mogul conquest, 1526.

Thus, Bahâr was in the possession of Muhammad Shâh Lohânî; a part of Mâlwâ and the surrounding districts were held by Sanga; Chandêri and the adjacent country by Medni Râi; and Bengâl by an Afghân chief. The Dakhan, which had been independent since 1347, was now divided into five Musalmân kingdoms, besides the Hindû kingdom of Bijanagar, called by Europeans *Narsinga*. (Ch. iv. § 22, 29.) The Portuguese had conquered Goa in A.D. 1510, and (though the great Albuquerque had died in A.D. 1515) they were still very powerful on the western coast. (Ch. vi. § 12–15.) Bahâr. Mâlwâ. Râjpûtâna. Bengâl. Dakhan. Portuguese.

Bâber's intentions.

(10.) It was evidently the general impression, even among Bâber's own troops, that after plundering Âgra and Delhi, he would, like his ancestor Teimûr, return to the regions west of the Indus. This intention, however, he emphatically disclaimed: he had come to found a Tatâr Empire in India.

(11.) Prince Humâyûn, Bâber's eldest son, was accordingly employed to reduce to obedience the various Musalmân chieftains. In four months this was effected, from Gwâliôr to Jounpûr. (Ch. ii. § 42.)

Sanga, the Râjpût, of Chitôr.

(12.) A more stubborn enemy was the Hindû Sanga, a Râjpût prince; with whom the Râjas of Mârwâr and Jeypûr were joined, as also Medni Râî of Chandêrî. Sanga was the grandson of Râna Khumbo (1440), who was the grandson of Bâpu. (§ 4.)

Final struggle with the Râjpûts.

This was the last great struggle of the Râjpûts for empire. Sanga had formerly intrigued against the Lodîs, and now patriotically resolved to expel, if possible, the Musalmâns from India. The question to be answered was, "Shall there ever again be a Kshatriya Empire of Hindûstân?" The answer was, "No."

Sikri. [This was the favourite residence of Akbar, who greatly embellished it.]

The decisive battle of Sîkri (Fatihpûr Sîkri, near Âgra), (February 1527), and the storming of Chandêrî (January 1528), firmly established the Mogul throne. The defenders of this last fortress perished to a man in the desperate struggle. Thus fell Medni Râî, who was next to Sanga as a Râjpût leader. Humâyûn afterwards married a daughter of the Râja of Jeypôr.

Chandêri.

The Johar. [Ch. ii. § 32.]

(13.) Bahâr and Bengâl were next attacked; and by May 1529 these provinces had also submitted to Bâber's arms.

Bâber's death.

(14.) Bâber's death was remarkable. Humâyûn, his eldest son, was dangerously ill, when Bâber, according to a well-known eastern custom, conceived the idea of offering his own life for his son's. In the accomplishment of this loving resolve, he walked round the bed of the sick youth three times, praying solemnly to God that the disease might be transferred to himself.

After this act, he exclaimed, in the full belief that his prayer had been heard, "I have borne it away." And, strange to say, Humâyûn recovered from that hour; while Bâber, whose health was already decaying, began rapidly to decline. Exhorting his children and courtiers with his latest breath to avoid dissension and civil strife, he died, December 26, 1530. His remains were carried to Kâbul, where a simple but beautiful tomb was erected to his memory.

[Cardinal Wolsey died in the same year.]

His burial.

(15.) His character is a mixed one.

His character.

a. He inherited somewhat of the ferocity of his Tatâr ancestors, and was inhuman in his treatment of conquered enemies.

Cruel.

b. Yet there is a simplicity and absence of affectation in his character that excites the sympathies of all who read his *Memoirs*; which, like other great warriors, he wrote himself; and which are models of easy elegance, giving the liveliest picture of the man.

His memoirs. Simplicity.

c. His undaunted bravery, patience in adversity, perseverance, and elasticity of mind, are truly admirable. No more inflexible spirit ever wrestled with adversity and overcame it.

Brave and persevering.

d. He seems to have been addicted to the immoderate use of wine, by which he lessened his dignity and shortened his life.

Intemperate.

(16.) At this period arose *Chaitanya*, who remodelled the Vaishnava worship. Krishna was the form of Vishnu, whose worship he inculcated. He brought into use the word BHAKTI (=faith and devotion); teaching that fervent love and adoration were of more importance than ceremonial observances. This has much changed the character of Hindû worship.

Chaitanya. 1484-1527. The great Bengâl teacher.

PART III.—HUMÂYÛN.

§ 4. The *Second* Mogul Emperor was HUMÂYÛN, who reigned nominally from A.D. 1530 to 1556; but spent nearly sixteen years of this period (1540-1556) in exile.

II. HUMÂYÛN, 1530-1556.

The Mogul flood was, at this period, driven back, to return, however, in a few years with greater force, and to overspread the whole land.

(1.) This emperor is famous alike for his lenity and the misfortunes in great part caused by it; for the fortitude with which he bore his adverse fortunes, and the bravery by which at length he retrieved them.

Summary.

(2.) He had three brothers—Kâmrân, Hindâl, and Mirza Askarî, to the first of whom he rashly gave up Kâbul, Kandahâr, the Panjâb, and the countries on the Indus; to the second,

His treatment of his brothers.

Sambal (east of Delhi); and to the youngest, Mêwât (Machêri or Alwâr). His generosity, or weakness, thus stripped him of his fairest dominions.

Humâyûn, in fact, had nothing but newly-conquered territory left for himself to govern; and his father's veteran army and renown as his only support.

Bahâdar Shâh. Gujarât.

(3.) BAHÂDAR SHÂH of Gujarât (1526–1537), (Ch. ii. § 41), was his first antagonist.

Gujarât had long been independent. (Ch. vi. 16.)

1534.

Bahâdar Shâh, at that time king of that country, was the greatest that ever governed it. He compelled Kândêsh, Bêrâr, and Ahmadnagar to acknowledge him as their feudal superior. He had conquered and annexed Mâlwâ. Humâyûn, irritated at his harbouring some fugitive rebels, attacked him, and wrested from him a great part of his dominions; but he regained all in the following year.

1535.

The scaling of the walls of the fort of Champanîr (where the treasures of the kingdom were heaped up) by 300 men, of whom Humâyûn himself was one, was the great exploit of this war.

The emperor's bravery.

Champanîr and Pâwangarh.

Bahâdar had a splendid park of artillery, directed by Portuguese gunners, under Rûmi Khân, a very able officer.

This antient but now deserted city was a few miles N.E. of Baròda. The fort of Pâwangarh is higher up the hill. It is surrounded by walls fifteen feet high, and one mile and a half in circumference. (See Chap. v. § 129.)

Shîr Khân Sûr's contest with Humâyûn.

(4.) Humâyûn's next and more redoubtable antagonist was SHÎR KHÂN SÛR, an Afghân (of the tribe of Sûr, descendant of one of the followers of the Lodîs), who now held Bahâr and Bengâl, which he had conquered.

He was called *Shîr Khân=lion-lord*, from having killed a tiger by a single blow of his sabre.

1538.

Humâyûn made several expeditions against him, and at length laid siege to Chunâr and took it. Shîr Khân was himself engaged in completing the conquest of Bengâl at the time. Humâyûn advanced as far as Gour, then the capital of Bengâl. Meanwhile the rains came on, during which nothing could be done in Bengâl; and Shîr Khân, issuing from his retreat in the hill-fortress of Ròhtas, retook the cities and forts on the Ganges, surprising Humâyûn between Patna and Benâres.

NOTE.—Rôhtas was an almost impregnable fortress, which the Sûr took by treachery from the Hindû Râja to whom it belonged. He found vast treasures in it. It is eighty-one miles S.E. from Benâres. (M.p. p. 3.)
Some few years after this time, Gour, a superb city, was entirely depopulated by some mysterious disease. Its stately ruins are near Mâlda. It had been a royal city for 2,000 years. Ch. i. § 22.

Rôhtas.

Gour.

1539.

The Emperor had only time to leap on horseback and plunge into the stream, in which he would have been drowned, had he not been rescued by a water-carrier. He thus reached Âgra almost alone. His brothers had been plotting against him; but they now aided him to prepare for the approach of the victorious Shîr Khân.

(5.) He sustained another decisive defeat near Kanouj, and was compelled to flee to Lâhôr; but Kâmrân himself had retired to Kâbul; and Humâyûn, deprived of that shelter, fled to Sind. There he wandered for a year and a half, and at length directed his course to Mârwâr. Repulsed thence, he made his way across the desert to Amerkôt, where he arrived with seven companions, after enduring unspeakable hardships.

Humâyûn's reverses, 1540.

(Comp. Destruction of a Scottish army in the Solway morasses, and the birth of Mary Queen of Scots, 1542.)

(6.) Here his son AKBAR was born [§6 (3)]. Deserted by his brothers, Humâyûn pursued his flight, and reached Persia, 1544.

Birth of Akbar, 1542.

In April 1543, his faithful general, Beirâm Khân, who had escaped from the battle of Kanouj, joined him. The infant Akbar was sent to Kandahâr.

(Death of Queen Katherine Howard.)

(7.) The Persian Shâh, Tamasp, did not treat Humâyûn generously; but used every unworthy expedient to induce him to become a Shîa, like the Persians, and to introduce that system thenceforward into India.

His treatment in Persia, 1544.

NOTE.—The *Shîa* and *Sunnî* are the two great sects into which the Muhammadans are divided.

Shîas and Sunnis.

A. The *Shîas* (1.) reject all traditions, and cling to the simple Kurân;
(2.) disavow the three Khalifs who immediately succeeded Muhammad;
(3.) seldom visit Mecca; but go to Kerbelâ instead, where Husain was slain.
(4.) They alone observe the Muharram.
(5.) They are called heretics by the Sunnis; are the *Protestants* of Muhammadanism.
(6.) The Persians, and nearly all Indian Muhammadans, are of this sect.

? Not at all

B. The *Sunnîs* (1.) hold the *Sunnat*, or traditions, as a supplement to the Kurân;
(2.) acknowledge as Khalifs after Muhammad, *Abû-Bekr*, *Omar*, and *Osman*; then, and fourthly, *Alî*.
(3.) Afghâns, Turks, Arabs, and Rohillas are of this sect.

Humâyûn's efforts to regain his empire, 1545.

At length, however, the Persian king gave him 14,000 horsemen, to assist in restoring him to his kingdom. Thus aided, he took Kandahâr and Kâbul from his unnatural brother Kâmrân. It is said that during the siege of the latter place, Kâmrân exposed the young Akbar on the walls, threatening to put him to death, if Humâyûn should persist in the siege. Humâyûn seems to have behaved inhumanly, in slaughtering the prisoners.

Humâyûn and his brothers.

[Bâber's dying advice was not unnecessary, though it was unheeded. § 3 (14)].

(8.) In 1548, the four brothers, Humâyûn, Hindâl, Kâmrân, and Mirza Askarî were reconciled; but Kâmrân, ever treacherous, again rebelled, and was at length defeated and blinded (1553). These dissensions weakened the cause of the house of Teimûr; but in 1555 Humâyûn was in a condition to attempt to regain his Indian dominions.

The history of the *restored Afghân dynasty must now be traced.*

PART IV.—The Sûrs.

§ 5. The restored Afghâns, or Sûr dynasty, five in number. (A.D. 1540–1556.)

Humâyûn in exile: his return and death.

Shîr Shâh Sûr, 1540-1545.

(1.) Shîr Shâh is often branded as a usurper. Yet, descended from the ancient Afghân conquerors, a native of India, and the expeller of the Moguls, who had only reigned fourteen years in India, his claim to the throne was at least as good as Humâyûn's.

His wise government.

(2.) Nor did his method of ruling give his new subjects cause to regret the revolution. He was, in his government of India, wise, benevolent, and active; though ambitious, and, in one case certainly, treacherous and cruel. This was in the atrocious massacre of the garrison of Raisin (in Mâlwâ, a fortress said to have been built by Râma), which was surrendered on the express stipulation that the lives of its defenders should be spared. Shîr Shâh slew them, because *faith is not to be kept with infidels!*

His beneficent works.

(3.) He is said to have made a road from Bengâl to the bank of the Indus, and from Âgra to Mândû, with a caravanserai at every stage, and wells at intervals of a mile and a half all along. He was killed at the siege of Kalinjîr (in Bandêlkhand), A.D. 1545.

His death.

His tomb is to be seen at Sasserâm, between the Ganges and the Sône. (Map, p. 4.)

(34 miles S. from Buxâr.)

Selîm Shâh Sûr, 1545–1553.

(4.) The *second* of this restored dynasty was SELÎM SHÂH (A.D. 1545–1553), or *Islâm Shâh*. He seems to have possessed great ability, and to have laboured for the improvement of the country.

The same year with Selîm, died Selîm Mahmûd Shâh III. of Gujarât, and Burhân Nizâm Shâh of Ahmednagar.

[Ch. iv. § 24.]

Muhammad Adalî Sûr (Adalî (=*the foolish*).

(5.) Selîm's son, Ferôz, succeeded; but, after three days, was murdered by his uncle, MUHAMMAD ADIL SHÂH (or Adalî), who is commonly called the *third* of the restored dynasty.

He was a despicable tyrant. His Vazîr was Hêmu, a Hindû of low origin, but of great ability. This man had been a petty shopkeeper; but he fought with the courage of a Paladin, and assumed the title of Vikramâditya.

Humâyûn's return, 1555.

(6.) Rebellions soon ensued, and the empire was divided into five portions, under rivals—members of the Afghân royal family (1555). IBRAHÎM SÛR, one of these, got possession of Delhi, and is reckoned the *fourth*

of the dynasty. This was the moment when Humâyûn made up his mind to invade India. He soon gained possession of Lâhôr, and, driving SIKANDER SÛR, another of the rivals (called the fifth of the dynasty), to the Himâlayas, regained Âgra and Delhi.

The battle of Nowshêra. June 18, 1555.

This battle, the decisive one, in which Akbar, then a little more than 12 years old, fought (like the Black Prince) by the side of Humâyûn and Beirâm Khân, was fought at or near NOWSHÊRA (June 18, 1555), not far from the Satlaj.

Humâyûn's death, 1556.

(7.) Humâyûn had, however, regained at his death but a very small portion of his dominions; for SIKANDER soon reappeared in the Panjâb, and Hêmu, with the army of Adalî, was still in Bengâl. While Prince Akbar, then thirteen years of age, was in the Panjâb with Bairâm Khân, Humâyûn fell from the stairs leading to the top of his palace in Delhi, and was killed.

He had paused on the steps, hearing the Muezzin's call to prayer, and had seated himself: when trying to rise, assisted by his staff, he slipped on the polished stair, and, there being only a low parapet, fell headlong over. He died in a few days, six months after his return (1556).

Humâyûn's character.

(8.) He was superstitious; kindly-hearted on the whole; indulgent; very dilatory in all his movements; and too incessantly occupied in warfare to be able to do anything for his adopted country.

PART V.—AKBAR.

III. Accession of AKBAR, 1556–1605.

§ 6. The *Third* Mogul Emperor was AKBAR. (1556–1605.) He has been pronounced to be *the greatest sovereign that ever swayed a sceptre.*

His mother.

(1.) Akbar's real name was Jalâl-ud-dîn (=*the glory of the faith*) Muhammad. His surname is *Akbar*=the Great.

(2.) His mother's name was Hamida, a native of Khorasân, of obscure family.

His birth. 1542. (Mary Queen of Scots was born the same year, and amid similar disasters.)

(3.) He was born at Amerkôt, in Sind (Oct. 14, 1542), while Humâyûn was fleeing from the ambition of Shîr Shâh, and from the treachery of his brothers and his subjects. [§ 4 (6).]

It is said that his father, unable to give the presents usual on such occasions, broke up a pod of musk; and distributed it among his adherents, with the wish that "his son's fame might be diffused throughout the world like the odour of that perfume."

(4.) He fell into the hands of his uncle Kâmrân, December 1543, and remained at Kandahâr and Kâbul till 1555.

(5.) When Humâyûn died [§ 5 (7)], Akbar was thirteen years and four months old. It was a very much disputed inheritance to which he succeeded.

His rivals.

Sikander, with the title of King of Delhi and of the Panjâb, was in arms near Sirhind, and Hêmu was on the borders of Bengâl.

A young brother of Akbar, Mirza Hakim, had been made King of Kandahâr by Humâyûn, but was dispossessed by Soleimân of Badakshân, one of the same family, placed there by Bâber.

Beirâm Khân. § 4 (6).

(6.) The restorer of the race of Teimûr, and the real ruler for some years, was *Beirâm Khân*, the *atâlîq* or guardian of Akbar.

He was styled "the king's father," and had unlimited powers as regent. A Persian and a Shia, he had been sent to aid Bâber in his earlier struggles; and had been the most faithful and able of the adherents of the house of Teimûr.

Hêmu's death.

(7.) Hêmu, who had taken both Âgra and Delhi, and had assumed the title of Râja Vikramâditya, after a heroic resistance, was overthrown and captured at the third battle of Pânipat. Beirâm wished Akbar to earn the title of Ghâzî, or champion, by slaying the Hindû. Akbar refused to strike a defenceless captive; and it was Beirâm that slew the infidel. The facts are significant. Sikander also soon after submitted. Ibrâhîm Khân Sûr, who took refuge among the Afghâns, was slain in 1567.

The battle was fought at *Pânipat*, November 5, 1553.

July 1557.

Beirâm's regency. 1556-1560.

(8.) Beirâm's inflexibility, military talents, and energy, were essential to Akbar at this period; but the

[*Umarâs* =grandees.] 1560.

regent occasionally exceeded his powers, and unnecessarily alienated the Omrahs, by whom Akbar was persuaded to assume the supreme power in his eighteenth year (A.D. 1560).

Beirâm's rebellion and death, 1560.

Beirâm, after much vacillation, broke out into rebellion; but was soon overcome, and threw himself on the mercy of Akbar, by whom he was treated with the utmost generosity and affection. The old man now set out to visit Mecca, the Muhammadan way of retiring from public life; but was assassinated in Gujarât.

(9.) Akbar was at length emperor in reality.

Akbar's early training.

His training had been such as to fit him for his most difficult task. Brought up among hardships; fighting at the age of thirteen like a hero by the side of Beirâm Khân to recover his father's throne; compelled by the character of Beirâm to exercise in boyhood and youth the utmost prudence and self-restraint; and, aware that a single false step now might lose all, he ascended the throne with sober and prudent resolves to govern well and wisely.

He was, in addition to this, a perfect specimen of an accomplished Muhammadan knight. In knightly courtesy and generosity, in heroic perseverance and magnanimity, in noble simplicity and tenderness of heart, and in philosophic breadth, calmness, and keen perception, he has had few equals in any age or country.

His prospects on his accession, 1560-1567.

(10.) The adherents of the house of Teimûr in India were, however, at this period, few.

Akbar and his chiefs were a small band of strangers in the land; far more so than William and his Normans after the battle of Hastings.

The Panjâb and the district around Delhi were all that the Moguls could as yet call their own.

(11.) Akbar had first to conquer his own feudatory nobles. Khân Zemân (one of Akbar's own generals), Râz Bahâdur in Mâlwâ, Adam Khân, Abdullah Khân, and Asaf Khân, with three other military chieftains,

made war against him; and in such struggles he was engaged until his 25th year (A.D. 1567).

(12.) He spent the next five years (A.D. 1567–1572) in reducing the Râjpûts to submission. His struggles with the Râjpûts. (Comp. ch. i. § 28.)

The chief of these was—

(*a.*) The Râja of Jeypûr (Ambêr), Bahâra (Bihâri) Mal.

Akbar married this Râja's daughter (1561), and Selim, Akbar's eldest son, was married to another princess of the same family, daughter of Râj Bhagnvân Dâs (1585). This Râja was the first who formed such an alliance. Selim's brother-in-law, Râja Mân Sing, was one of Akbar's great generals (24), and a commander of 7,000.

(*b.*) The next Râjpût state was that of the Râna (of Chitôr, or) Oudipûr, Ûdi Sing, son of Râna Sangâ. [§ 3 (12).] With this chief there was an obstinate and bloody war; in which Akbar was victorious, taking *Chitôr*, which then ceased to be the capital of this division of Râjpûtâna. (Ch. ii. § 32.) 1567.

In 1580, Râna Pertâb (son of Ûdi Sing) regained a part of his dominions, and founded Oudipûr. (Or *Oudeypore*, or *dipûr*, or *Udaipûr*.)

(*c.*) The third Râjpût chieftain was the Râna of Jodhpûr, (or Mârwâr,) Maldêo. This chief for a time was in disgrace; but his son was afterwards much favoured by the emperor.

Akbar married a daughter of the Râja of Mârwâr, called Jodh Bâî. She was the mother of Jehângîr.

In regard to these marriages, it seems probable that to them the vigour of the imperial race for so many generations was partly due. The influence they had in softening prejudices and uniting Hindûs and Muhammadans was very great. The Chitôr family alone refused all such imperial alliances, and despised the other Râjpût families for permitting them. The intermarriages of the Moguls with the Râjpûts.

The Oudipûr, or Mêwâr, Râjas are considered to be the most distinguished in Hindûstân. They trace their descent from Râma, the great head of the Solar race. In A.D. 524, their capital, Barabhipôr, in the Gulf of Cambay, was invaded by a Persian king, son of Noushirvân the Great, whose daughter was married into their royal family. The Queen of Noushirvân was a Christian, daughter of Maurice, Emperor of Constantinople. Goha, who married the Christian princess, founded the state of Edar. From him, Bâpu, the antagonist of the Muhammadans, descended. (Ch. ii. § 4.) Hence the Râja of Oudipûr is the descendant of a Christian princess, related to the Christian emperors of the Eastern Roman Empire! (Comp. ch. i. § 27, 28.) (Comp. ch. ii. § 4.)

(13.) Akbar now annexed *Gujarât* to his ever-growing empire. (It had been independent from 1391. Ch. ii. § 41.) Gujarât, 1573.

Bahâdar Shâh [§ 4 (3)] died in 1537. The dissensions that followed his death were so great that Akbar was requested to put an end to the anarchy by taking the kingdom, which, after some severe fighting, he did (A.D. 1573). Ahmadâbâd became

the residence of a Mogul viceroy, generally a prince of the royal blood.

Muzaffir Shâh, the dispossessed king, became one of Akbar's courtiers. He rebelled afterwards, and committed suicide (A.D. 1593.)

The Eastern Provinces reduced, 1575-1592.

(14.) Akbar's next conquest was that of *Bahâr, Bengâl, and Orissa.*

Dâûd Khân, an Afghân, had taken possession of these provinces. His defeat and death ended the contest (1576). There were, however, serious rebellions afterwards; and both Râja Todar Mal and Râja Mân Sing were employed as viceroys in re-establishing order. Akbar's power was severely tried by these rebellions. Râja Mân Sing, son of Bhagavân Dâs, was the conqueror of Orissa. Orissa was wholly and finally subdued in 1592, and now *no remains of the Afghân power were to be found in Hindûstân.*

Reasons for the failure, on the whole, of the Afghâns.

The chiefs of the Afghân clans were jealous of one another; had no bond of union, no national sentiment; and could not, therefore, found any permanent kingdom. Individuals among them possessed genius; but they had neither the power of organization nor persistent energy. They failed to found an empire.

The Panjâb, 1581.

(15.) Akbar's brother, Mirza Hakim, of Kâbul, invaded the Panjâb, A.D. 1581.

Akbar repelled the invasion, and occupied Kâbul, which afterwards was held by Mirza Hakim in subordination to Delhi.

Attock, 1581. (=*limit* or *barrier*.)

Râja Bhagavân Dâs, of Jeypûr, Akbar's brother-in-law, was made governor of the Panjâb. The fort of Attock was then built by Akbar.

Cashmir, 1586. (Ch. xi. § 7) (or *Cashmere*).

(16.) The next conquest was that of *Cashmîr.* The emperor went there in person, and defeated the chief, who became one of the Omrahs of the Delhi Court.

Hill tribes on the border, 1586-1600. (Ch. xi. § 4.)

(17.) This was followed by a war with various Afghân tribes around the plain of Peshâwar, such as the Yusufzyes (*Eusofzyes*) and Roshenîyas.

These, in one instance, gained a considerable victory over the imperial troops, but were afterwards reduced to some kind of order, though they continue independent to this day.

Sind, 1592.

(18.) Sind was added (in 1592) to the list of Akbar's annexations. The chief whom he subdued became a

commander of 5,000 in the Mogul army, and was appointed governor of Tatta.

This was the wise policy always adopted by Akbar.

The Portuguese aided the Sind chief, and it is said that natives, dressed and drilled as Europeans, fought in this war. These were *the first sepoys in India.* — The first Sepoys in India.

(19.) Kandahâr, too, came again under Akbar's sway, owing to dissensions among the Persians. — Kandahâr, 1594.

Thus Akbar's hereditary dominions beyond the Indus, and all Hindûstân to the Nerbudda (except Oudipûr), were now completely under his sway. *Thirty-eight years of his reign had thus been consumed, and he was now fifty years of age.*

(20.) He next attempted (and it was an unjust and aggressive war) the re-conquest of the Dakhan. (Ch. iv. § 22.) — The Dakhan.

The chief events in the history of the Dakhan, belonging to Akbar's reign, are— — Summary.

(*a.*) *The battle of Talîkôt*, 1565. (Ch. iv. § 29.)

(*b.*) Confederacy of the kings of Bijapûr and Ahmadnagar against the Portuguese, A.D. 1570. (Ch. vi. § 19.) — [Shakspeare born, 1564.]

(*c.*) The two sieges of Ahmadnagar, A.D. 1595, 1599. (Ch. iv. § 24.)

(*d.*) The annexation of Kândêsh, A.D. 1599, 1600.

(21.) The dissensions in Ahmadnagar between the Hindû and Abyssinian nobles so increased, that Murâd (second son of Akbar) and Mirza Khân (son of Beirâm Khân), were sent to take the divided city. — The siege of Ahmadnagar, 1595.

The city of Ahmadnagar was then in the hands of the celebrated CHÂND BÎBÎ (daughter of the Sultân Husain Nizâm Shâh, widow of Alî Âdil Shâh of Bijapûr, and great-aunt of the infant Sultân, Bahâdar Nizâm Shâh), one of the great heroines of the history of India, and of the world. She made peace with her father-in-law, the King of Bîjapûr, conciliated the Abyssinian nobles, and defended the city with astonishing skill and bravery against Prince Murâd, who was now pressing the siege. A breach was made in the wall; and the defenders were on the point of giving up the city, when the Sultâna appeared in full armour, veiled, with a drawn sword in her hand; and, standing in the breach, renewed the struggle, which ended at night-fall by the withdrawal of the Mogul armies. The dawn beheld the breach — Chând Bibî. (Ch. iv. § 23-24.)

thoroughly repaired, and the Regent, who had not quitted her post, ready to meet the assailants. But Murâd abandoned the siege, and a peace was concluded.

Akbar in the Dakhan, 1599. (*Burhânpûr*, the antient capital of Kândêsh, on the N.W. bank of the Tapti.)

Akbar now left the Panjâb (in the vicinity of which he had been from 1854); and, in 1599, arrived at Burhânpûr. Dowlatâbâd had been taken, and Prince Dâniyal (Akbar's third son), with Mirza Khân, was sent on again to besiege Ahmadnagar.

Civil dissensions had again broken out, and the heroic Chând Bîbî was murdered by the opponents of her little grand-nephew.

Ahmadnagar taken, 1599. (Ch. iv. § 24.)

[Spenser died, 1599.]

The Moguls then soon took the city, made a great slaughter of the traitors, and took the young king prisoner. He ended his days in the usual prison, Gwâliôr.

The kingdom itself survived under the great Abyssinian, Malik Ambar [§ 7 (5), p. 95]; and was not finally subdued till the time of Shâh Jehân, A.D. 1637.

Kândêsh, 1601.

(29) (a).

(22.) Akbar next annexed Kândêsh. Asîrghar was taken, and Prince Daniyâl made viceroy. Here ended Akbar's exploits in the Dakhan; which he left in A.D. 1601; Âb-ul-Fazl, the great statesman, being left in command.

The Dakhan at Akbar's death.

At the death of Akbar his possessions in the Dakhan were Kândêsh, a great part of Berâr, the fort of Ahmadnagar, and the surrounding districts. Not a warrior from choice, his reign was a series of military exploits, almost always crowned with entire success.

(23.) Akbar was unfortunate in his sons. The two eldest, Hasan and Hussain, were twins, and died in infancy.

Selîm, born 1569, at Sikri.

(*a.*) Selîm (=*safety*), who afterwards succeeded him, rebelled in 1601; but Akbar's prudence put down the rebellion, and the Prince was, notwithstanding, made Viceroy of Bengâl and Orissa, and commander of 10,000. He lived, chiefly at *Allâhâbâd*, in drunkenness

(=*House of God.*)

and debauchery. He caused Âb-ul-Fazl to be set upon and murdered on his way back from the Dakhar.

(*b.*) Murâd (=*desired*) died at the age of 29 (1599). Murâd, born 1570, at Sikri.

(*c.*) Daniyâl (Daniel=*judge of God*) died in 1604, of intemperance. Daniyâl, born 1572.

He married a daughter of the Shâh of Bijapûr, Ibrahîm Âdil Shâh II. Ferishta, the great historian, was sent to attend the Princess to Burhânpûr.

1601.

(24.) Akbar's health at length began to fail. Sorrow for the death of Daniyâl is said to have hastened his end. When it became clear that he could not recover, the usual intrigues regarding the succession to the throne commenced. Akbar's failing health.

1605.

The choice lay between Selîm, the only surviving son of the emperor, and Selîm's son, Khûsrû, who had been appointed nominal governor of Orissa in 1593, when he was a mere child. His successor.

Selîm's drunkenness and the memory of his rebellion were obstacles to his succession. Moreover, Râja Mân Sing, of Jeypûr, brother of Khûsrû's mother, and the great general Azîz (or Âzîm Khân), his father-in-law, were in the younger prince's favour.

Akbar himself ended the strife by nominating Selîm as his successor, in the presence of the Omrahs, and causing him to gird himself with his favourite scymitar. Selîm is nominated.

The dying emperor then addressed the Omrahs, expressing his hope that there would be no dissension between those who had for so many years been the sharers of his toils and the companions of his glory. Akbar's last moments.

He then asked their forgiveness for any offences he might have been guilty of against them; and, repeating the Muhammadan confession of faith, died, in profession, a good Musalmân. He was buried near Âgra. October 13, 1605.

[Comp. p. 93. He was 63 years old within a single day; and had reigned nearly 50 years.]

(25.) To complete the sketch of the life and times of this, the greatest of Eastern rulers, we must add some particulars—

A. Of his character and personal peculiarities;
B. Of his religious sentiments;
C. Of his policy;
D. Of his friends and companions.

(26.) A. *Akbar's character and personal peculiarities.*

Akbar's personal character.

(*a.*) In person he was strongly built and handsome; very affable and captivating in manners; sober and abstemious; not taking animal food for a fourth of the year; spending little time in sleep; and fond of hunting and athletic sports. He rode from Âjmîr to Agra (220 miles) in two days, and often walked thirty or forty miles in a day. Among other things, he was a great pigeon fancier.

Studious. (Comp. him with *Alfred the Great.*)

(*b.*) He was very studious, most methodical in the despatch of business, understood Sanskrit, encouraged every kind of literature, and superintended many important literary undertakings.

(*c.*) He was very affectionate, both to his family and friends, humane and compassionate.

Humane.

When he heard of Selim's causing a man to be flayed alive, he exclaimed, that he wondered that the son of a man who could not bear to see even a dead beast flayed should be guilty of such cruelty.

(27.) B. *Akbar's religion.*

His unsettled faith.

(*a.*) Earlier in life he was a consistent Muhammadan; but in 1579 he openly professed latitudinarian sentiments, quite incompatible with orthodoxy.

Eclectic.

(*b.*) He studied Hindû works of science and religion, and made himself acquainted, of course very imperfectly, with the tenets of the Christian religion, though under most unfavourable circumstances. Regular discussions were held, in which Brâhmans, Muhammadan doctors, Sîkh Gurus, and even Christian priests took part. His leanings seem to have been to the last of these systems.

(28.) C. *Akbar's policy.*

Policy.

(*a.*) This was a conciliating and tolerant policy, dictated by his good sense, benevolent feelings, comprehensive intellect, and wide experience. But for this the Moguls would have soon passed away, as the various Afghân dynasties had before them.

Impartiality. (Comp. European history, and observe how *Toleration* was there unknown.)

(*b.*) He desired to treat all his subjects alike, to abolish the distinction of Hindû and Muhammadan; and thus to fuse the discordant elements of his empire into one homogeneous whole.

Revenue systems.

(*c.*) In revenue matters he introduced great reforms, not involving new principles so much as an accurate

and painstaking adjustment of the burdens of taxation, making them press equally on all.

He laboured to reduce the expenses of the collection of the revenue, and to prevent the extortions of government officers. His greatest revenue officer was Râja Todar Mal. The amount of revenue collected was about 30,000,000 pounds sterling.

(*d.*) The empire, which contained at least 150,000,000 of inhabitants, was divided into eighteen Sûbâhs, each under a Viceroy. The laws in regard to punishments issued to these Sûbahdârs were humane, forbidding mutilation in any case. Divisions of the empire.

The provinces were: (1) Kâbul, (2) Lâhôr, (3) Mûltân, (4) Delhi, (5) Agra, (6) Oudh, (7) Allâhâbâd, (8) Ajmîr, (9) Gujarât, (10) Mâlwâ, (11) Bahâr, (12) Bengâl, (13) Kândêsh, (14) Berâr, (15) Ahmadnagar, (16) Orissa, (17) Cashmîr, and (18) Sind. The list, however, varies continually.

A province under a viceroy was called a Sûbâh, and the viceroy was called a *Sûbâhdâr*. Their deputies, having charge of districts, were *Nuwâbs* (=*deputy*).

(*e.*) The army. To introduce submission, economy, and efficiency into such an army as his, was a hard task. Military system.

The soldiers were ordered to be paid in cash, not by assignments of land. There were not more than 450 officers, commanding above 200 men, in all his vast armies; and thirty officers, exclusively princes, each of whom held the command of 5,000. These last were called Panjhazâris.

Much corruption seems to have existed in this department to the last.

(29.) D. Akbar's friends, companions, and officers were all men of renown.

He possessed that rare but necessary power—entirely wanting in Aurungzib—of appreciating and trusting his ministers and generals. Bairâm Khân, and his son Mirza (Abdurrahim), Monim Khân; the generals Aziz and Khân Jehân; the Hindû relatives of the Emperor Bahâra Mal, Bhagavân Dâs, and Mân Sing, were ornaments of his splendid court.

(*a.*) Âb-ul-Fazl (=*the father of excellence*). This eminent man, and the next in our list, Feizî, were sons of a learned man, who taught divinity in Âgra. He Âb-ul-Fazl.

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and his brother were Akbar's most intimate friends and counsellors.

His death in the same year as that of Queen Elizabeth.

Âb-ul-Fazl rose to the highest military commands, and was prime minister. He died in the forty-seventh year of the reign (1603).

Ayin Akbarî.

He was the author of (I.) the celebrated Ayîn Akbarî (or *Institutes* of Akbar); which contain a minute account of every department of government, and everything connected with the emperor's establishments, public and private; and (II.) of the Akbar Nâmeh, an elaborate panegyrical history of the emperor's reign to about 1600.

(Oorcha, Orcha, or Urcha.)

He was killed by assassins employed by Selîm (23), at Oorcha, in Mâlwâ.

Feizî.

(*b.*) Feizî (=*most excellent*), the elder brother of Ab-ul-Fazl, (like his brother a most intimate friend of the emperor,) was employed on an embassy to the Dakhan. He was the first Muhammadan that studied Hindû literature, from which he translated many works. He was, moreover, a poet, and more studious, but less a man of the world, than his brother.

Translations from the Sanskrit.

The brothers translated the Mahâ Bhârata into Persian verse. This great work consisted of 100,000 couplets.

Todar Mal.

(*c.*) Râja Todar Mal. Born at Lâhôr, from early youth a soldier, he was at once a great military leader and also the great finance minister who carried out the extensive revenue reforms which have been referred to.

(23, *c.*)

He is described as sincere and honest, but vindictive, and a very bigoted Hindû. From 1580 to 1582 he was Viceroy of Bengâl, and ably put down a rebellion there. He was also distinguished in the Afghân wars. Râja Bhagavân Dâs and Râja Todar Mal both died in 1589. These men were the contemporaries of Burleigh and Sully, and rival those great ministers in renown; as their master more than equalled the French Henri le Grand, or the English Elizabeth.

The first Bourbon, and the last Tudor.

[The careful comparison is instructive!]

PART VI.—JEHÂNGÎR.

§ 7. JEHÂNGÎR was the FOURTH MOGUL EMPEROR. (A.D. 1605–1627.)

IV. JEHÂNGÎR. (*James I., Charles I.*)

(1.) His name was Selîm. On his accession he took the title of Jehân-gîr (=*the world's conqueror*).

Summary.

(2.) We shall have to notice in his history:—

(*a.*) his youthful intemperance and violent temper;

(*b.*) his rebellion against his father;

(*c.*) his murder of Âb-ul-Fazl; 1602, 1603.

(*d.*) his divergence from his father in religious matters;

(*e.*) his treatment of his son Khûsrû; 1605.

(*f.*) his queen, Nûr Jehân (=*light of the world*); 1611.

(*g.*) Sir T. Roe's embassy; 1615.

(*h.*) the history of Muhâbat Khân, his great general; and

(*j.*) affairs in the Dakhan, chiefly connected with the great Malik Ambar.

(3.) Jehângîr was, on the whole, judicious in his first public acts.

Jehângîr's first steps.

A. He adopted and even developed his father's measures of reform.

B. He took great pains to give all men opportunities of approaching him; a chain being hung from a part of the wall of the citadel, to which all had access, which chain was connected with a bell in the emperor's private room. Thus every suitor could make himself heard, without the intervention of any officer of the palace.

Accessible.

C. He was more rigid than his father in his attention to the observances of the Muhammadan faith. He restored to the coin the inscription which announces, not only the indisputable truth that "there is one God," but also the declaration, offensive to Hindûs, that "Muhammad is His Prophet." In short, though not religious, he was scrupulous in the use of the forms of religion.

His religious opinions.

Inconsistency.

D. Himself a drunkard during his whole life, he punished all who were detected in the use of wine.

His sons.

(4.) Jehângîr was as unfortunate in regard to his sons as Akbar had been.

Khûsrû.

§ 6. (12) (24).

A. His eldest son, Khûsrû, had long been at enmity with him. The mother of this prince was a Râjpût princess, whose death had been caused by Jehângîr's (Selîm's) ill-treatment. Akbar had once designed to disinherit Selîm for his violence and debauchery. On his father's accession, therefore, Khûsrû, thinking himself not safe, fled to the Panjâb, where a large army gathered around him.

Khûsrû's rebellion.

Jehângîr's army was, however, victorious; and Khûsrû was seized on the bank of the Jhîlam, as he was trying to make his way to Kâbul.

Jehângîr's cruelty.

1605.

And now Jehângîr made a display of that cruelty which marked his character, and to which Akbar had ever been so averse. He caused 700 of Khûsrû's adherents to be impaled in a line leading from the gate of Lâhôr. The miserable prince was then conducted along the line to "receive the homage of his servants."

He was deeply affected by this horrid spectacle; and was kept a prisoner, though not in very close custody, till his death in 1621.

Shâh Jehân.

B. From 1623 to the death of the emperor, we shall find his third son *Khurram* in rebellion. He was, at first, Jehângîr's favourite; and in 1616 was nominated successor to the throne, and received the title of Shâh Jehân, or lord of the world.

Malik Ambar.

(5.) The chief interest of the affairs of the Dakhan is connected with Malik Ambar.

Malik Ambar in Ahmadnagar, 1599-1626.

[Comp. ch. iv. § 24.]

Ahmadnagar was taken by Prince Dâniyal in 1599 [§ 6 (21)]; but Malik Ambar, an Abyssinian noble of splendid abilities, founded a new capital which was called Khirki (a name afterwards changed by Aurungzîb to Aurungâbâd), where he maintained the government of the young king. He introduced Râja Todar Mal's revenue system into the Dakhan, and held his

ground against the Moguls until his death in 1626. With his death vanished all hope of a better order of things in the Dakhan. The nominal king of Ahmadnagar was Murteza Nizâm Shâh.

Prince Parvîz, the emperor's second son, in 1621 was Viceroy of the Dakhan; residing at Burhânpûr till his death in 1626. Parvîz.

Mirza and Prince Parvîz were sent to conquer the Dakhan in 1608; but Mirza was superseded in 1610 by Khân Jehân. Again Mirza, with Shâh Jehân, in 1616, were engaged in the same contest, the head-quarters of the Prince being Burhânpûr, while the Emperor was at Mândû. The Dakhan kingdoms nominally submitted. But in 1620 Malik Ambar was again in rebellion, and even besieged Burhânpûr. A compromise was effected.

(6.) In 1611 the great event of the emperor's life, his marriage with the celebrated *Mihrunnisa Khânum*, afterwards called Nûr Jehân (=*light of the world, or light of the palace:* Nûr Mahâl), which imparts an air of romance to his whole history, took place. She was of a noble Persian family, which being reduced to poverty, her father emigrated to India. On the way, at Kandahâr, Nûr Jehân was born. To such indigence were they reduced, that the infant, the mighty empress of world-wide renown, was exposed on the high road, where a merchant saw the child, and compassionately took it for his own. The child's own mother was employed by him as its nurse; and, even in her infancy, Nûr Jehân made the fortune of her family; for to the kind assistance of the merchant they owed their advancement. Nûr Jehân. Her early history.

Jehângîr (then Prince Selîm) had seen and loved her when as a girl she accompanied her mother, who had free access to Akbar's harem. To remove her from the Prince's sight, she was, by Akbar's advice, married to a young Persian, who was made governor of Burdwân. When Jehângîr became emperor, he attempted to induce Nûr Jehân's husband to divorce her: he refused, and in a quarrel that ensued was accidentally killed. Nûr Jehân was then sent to Delhi; but, looking upon the emperor as the murderer of her husband, she rejected his overtures with disdain. After a length of time, however, a reconciliation took place, Nûr Jehân becomes Empress.

Her unbounded influence. Her wise father and brother.

and Nûr Jehân became Empress of India. Her name was put on the coinage with the emperor's, and in all matters her influence was unbounded. Her father, and her brother, Asaf Khân, speedily raised to the highest offices, were wise ministers; and, though Jehângîr still indulged in nightly drunken debauches, the affairs of the empire were thenceforth managed with prudence and humanity.

War with Oudipûr, 1612-1614.

(7.) The war with the Râna of Mêwâr, or [§ 6 (12)] Oudipûr, was brought to a successful issue by Shâh Jehân, who treated the vanquished Râna with distinguished kindness. His dominions were restored to him on submission, and his son became one of the military leaders of the empire.

Sir T. Roe sent by James I., 1615.

(8.) Sir T. Roe (an oriental scholar) came as an ambassador from James I. to Jehângîr (1615 to 1618). He passed from Sûrat, through Burhânpûr and Chîtôr to Âjmîr, where he met the emperor, who was on his way to Gujarât. He found the cities of the Dakhan much neglected, and the country generally less prosperous than it had been in Akbar's time. The splendour of the court astonished him. He describes Jehângîr's nightly drunken orgies; and mentions having to bribe Asaf Khân with a pearl of value.

Sir T. Roe's Indian experiences.

The French traveller Bernier was then in Jehângîr's court, and Ferishta was there at the same time as envoy from Bijapûr. Jehângîr was well inclined to Christianity, which two of his nephews had embraced.

(9.) Intrigues, to ensure the succession to Prince Sheriâr, the emperor's youngest son (married to Nûr Jehân's daughter by her first husband), disturbed the peace of the empire, and led to Shâh Jehân's rebellion. Prince Parvîz, and the renowned general Muhâbat Khân, were sent against the rebel, and drove him from the Dakhan, whence he made his way to Bengâl, where he for a time established himself; but soon after submitted to his father.

Shâh Jehân's rebellion, 1623. His submission, 1624.

Muhâbat Khân's quarrel with Nûr Jehân, 1625.

(10.) Fresh troubles, however, arose from Nûr Jehân's jealousy of Muhâbat (=*awjul*) Khân, the most eminent man in the empire. His family had come from Afghânistân, and he had fought under Akbar, and been raised to the highest position by Jehângîr. He was a friend and partizan of Prince Parvîz, and thus a direct opponent of the empress, since Nûr Jehân designed Prince Sheriâr to succeed.

Jehângir a prisoner, 1626.

Muhâbat was sent for to court; but, finding his disgrace resolved upon, planned and executed a stroke of unexampled audacity: he took the emperor prisoner on the banks of the Jhîlam. Nûr Jehân strove in vain to liberate her husband, and at length resolved to share his captivity. She narrowly escaped being put to death by the victor. Muhâbat was now supreme, and retained his power for nearly a year.

[Lord Bacon died, 1626.]

Nûr Jehân at length succeeded in effecting the escape of the emperor; and Muhâbat was compelled to fly to the south, where he joined Shâh Jehân.

Death of the Emperor, of Parviz, of Malik Ambar, and of Mirza Khân.

(11.) Meanwhile the eventful years A.D. 1626 and 1627 were fatal to several of the great personages whose history is of importance.

Parvîz died at Burhânpûr.

Azîz (=*dear*), another of Akbar's great generals, and *Malik Ambar*, died about the same time.

Mirza (=*secretary*) *Khân* (the great son of Beirâm Khân), died somewhat later.

1627.

At length the emperor, too, died, of asthma, on his way from Kashmîr to Lâhôr, in his sixtieth year.

Birth of Sivaji, 1627.

The man destined to change the face of India, Sivaji, was born in May of the same year (ch. v. § 9).

A celebrated Vaishnava devotee and author, called Tulasi Dás, died at Banares in A.D. 1624.

Jehângir's justice.

(12.) Jehângîr, notwithstanding his intemperance and occasional violence, was remarkable for his sincere love of justice, and his endeavours, by himself hearing all

cases referred to him, to remedy the evils which existed in the state.

His maxim is said to have been: "That a monarch should care even for the beasts of the field; and, that the very birds of heaven ought to receive their due at the foot of the throne."

Tobacco. Like his contemporary, James I., he was an opponent of the use of *tobacco*, then being introduced into both East and West: royal edicts and treatises have failed to arrest its wonderful spread through the world.

PART VII.—Shâh Jehân.

V. Shâh Jehân. § 8. The fifth Mogul Emperor was Shâh Jehân. A.D. 1627–1658.

Summary of Shâh Jehân's reign.

(1.) A. In this reign Nûr Jehân's brother, Asaf Khân, was a distinguished person.

B. Muhâbat Khân still continued conspicuous (1634).

Khân Jehân Lôdi, 1629. C. The rebellion of Khân Jehân Lôdî led to extensive wars in the Dakhan.

Shâhjî. D. Shâhjî, the father of Sivajî (the founder of the Mahratta sovereignty), came into notice (ch. v. § 7).

Saad Ullâ Khân. E. The minister Saad Ullâ Khân was a remarkable person (died 1655).

His four sons. F. The character and fortunes of the emperor's four sons, and the dissimulation and unfilial conduct of Aurungzîb, are especially to be noted.

An architect. G. His skill as an architect, exhibited in the Tâj Mahâl and other buildings, is to be admired.

1628. (2.) Shâh Jehân, on the death of his father, hastened from the Dakhan to Âgra. Sheriâr, and two of his cousins who opposed him, were defeated and put to death. In fact, *none of the race of Bâber were left alive but the emperor's own children.*

Shâh Jehân's cruelty.

Nûr Jehân's after-life.

Nûr Jehân at once retired into absolute obscurity, having a magnificent jointure. She died in A.D. 1646.

The great men of the age.

The two great men were Nûr Jehân's brother, *Asaf Khân* [§ 7 (6)], and *Muhâbat Khân* [§ 7 (10)], who were highly rewarded by the new emperor for their fidelity to his cause.

Khân Jehân Lôdî, an Afghân general of Jehângîr, was Viceroy of the Dakhan.

Ahmadnagar affairs. (Comp. ch. iv. § 24.)

In the Dakhan kingdom of Ahmadnagar, Malik Ambar's son, Fath Khân, was soon set aside by *Murteza* Nizâm Shâh [§ 7 (5)], who now ruled for himself, but brought his kingdom to the verge of ruin. This destroyed the last hope of a successful resistance to the Mogul Arms.

Rebellion of Khân Jehân Lôdi, 1628-1630.

(3.) The rebellion of Khân Jehân Lôdî led to a disastrous war, which raged for seven years after his death. At first he seemed to aim at independence; but, soon submitted, and was removed from the viceroyalty of the Dakhan to Mâlwâ, Muhâbat Khân succeeding him.

Khân Jehân, suspecting that the emperor distrusted him, raised the standard of revolt in Âgra itself; was encountered and defeated on the banks of the Chambal, but escaped; and allying himself with the King of Ahmadnagar, Murteza Nizâm Shâh, transferred the war to the Dakhan, where Muhammad Âdil Shâh, of Bîjapûr, refused to aid him; and Abdullah Kutb, Shâh of Golconda, also held aloof. He was finally defeated and slain in Bandêlkhand, near Kalinjîr.

1630.

[Ch. iv. § 24.]

(4.) Shâh Jehân's generals still carried on the war in the Dakhan, to punish Murteza Nizâm Shâh, who was at length put to death by Fath Khân.

The Dakhan was now a prey to the threefold evils of war, pestilence, and famine.

Shâhjî.

In 1634, Muhâbat Khân was recalled to court, and the Moguls made no progress in the Dakhan, until Shâhjî, father of Sivajî (ch. v. § 7), set up a new pretender to the throne of Ahmadnagar, and took possession of the territory around. Sultân Shuja was now viceroy of the Dakhan, and was recalled with the general.

Final subjugation of Ahmadnagar. 1637.

Shâh Jehân now took the field himself; brought both Bîjapûr and Golconda to terms; and subdued Shâhjî, who entered the service of Bîjapûr. Thus the Ahmadnagar kingdom was extinguished (ch. iv. § 24).

Destruction of Portuguese power in Bengâl, 1631.

(5.) An episode connected with Portuguese affairs in Bengâl must here find place. The Portuguese had established a settlement near the antient fort of Satgong. This they called *Golin*, or the granary, corrupted afterwards into Hûglî. At Chittagong, too, they had a flourishing factory, defended by 1,000 Europeans, 2,000 natives, and eighty ships. To the Mogul governor of Dacca they were objects of great suspicion. He complained to Shâh Jehân that they had mounted cannon on their fort, and had grown insolent and oppressive. "Let the idolaters be expelled," was the emperor's command; and it was obeyed, after terrible slaughter. Thus was the power of the Portuguese in Bengâl for ever destroyed. The English were rising. (Comp. ch. vii. § 6, k.)

Alî Merdan Khân, 1637.

(6.) Alî Merdan Khân, governor of Kandahâr, at this time gave up that province to Shâh Jehân from disgust at the tyranny of his master, the King of Persia. He became a trusted general of the emperor, and especially rendered himself useful as an architect.

His canal in Delhi.

A canal at Delhi attests his skill, and bears his name.

It was repaired and fully restored by Lord Hastings in 1822.

Kandahâr, 1649.

(7.) Kandahâr was soon retaken by the Persians; and, though besieged by the emperor's sons, Aurungzîb and Dârâ, was never again added to the Mogul empire.

Saad Ullâ Khân.

(8.) A.D. 1653–1655 saw the completion of the great revenue settlement of the Dakhan, and the death of Saad Ullâ Khân, the most able and upright minister that had ever appeared in India.

1652.

(9.) Shâh Jehân sent his third son, Aurungzîb, as viceroy into the Dakhan; and that prince seemed determined to recompense himself for failures beyond the Indus by subjugating Bîjapûr and Golconda.

War with Golconda and Bijapûr.

The immediate cause of his attack on the latter kingdom was an appeal from Mîr Jûmla, its prime minister, formerly a diamond merchant, who had some disagreement with his master Abdullah Kutb Shâh. Under the pretext of sending his son Sultân Muhammad to Bengâl, to espouse the daughter of Prince Shuja, Aurungzîb marched on Haidarâbâd, took it, and invested the hill-fort of Golconda, compelling the king, Abdûllah, to pay tribute, and to marry his daughter to Sultân Muhammad. Mîr

Jûmla afterwards became one of Aurungzîb's favourite generals. He was proceeding to humble Bîjapûr in the same way, when news reached him of Shâh Jehân's sudden and dangerous illness. Aurungzîb had determined, at all hazards, to be his father's successor.

1657.

[A century before Plassey.]

(10.) Shâh Jehân had four sons and two daughters.

Shâh Jehân's family.

A. Dârâ Shako was then in his forty-second year; frank, generous, a free-thinker (and thus obnoxious to the Muhammadans, who beheld in him another Akbar); imprudent, and daring. Dârâ, like his great-grandfather, was deeply interested in theological studies. He studied Sanskrit, and translated the Upanishads (parts of the Vêdas) into Persian.

Dârâ. 1657. Resembled Akbar.

B. Shuja was forty years old, an effeminate sensualist. He chiefly resided at Râjmahâl, as Viceroy of Bengâl.

Shuja.

C. Aurungzîb was thirty-eight years old; a master of dissimulation; an accomplished soldier; of handsome person; a bigoted Muhammadan; and, above all, intensely ambitious.

Aurungzîb. [Compare the English Richard III.]

D. Murâd, the youngest, was brave and generous; but dull in intellect, self-willed, and an abandoned sensualist.

Murâd.

E. The eldest daughter was Jehânara, or Padshâh Begum; the favourite, and a great supporter of Dârâ.

Padshâh Begum.

She devoted herself in the prime of her youth to her father, and nursed him in his captivity until his death.

F. The younger daughter, Roshen-râi, was an active and intriguing partisan of Aurungzîb.

Roshen-râi.

(11.) On the news of their father's illness reaching them, in spite of Dârâ's efforts to conceal it, both Prince Shuja, then Viceroy of Bengâl, and Prince Murâd, Viceroy of Gujarât, assumed the royal title, and prepared to march on the capital. Aurungzîb more cautiously advanced to the northern boundary of his province; secured Mîr Jûmla, the general; and entered into a negotiation with Murâd. He repre-

Commencement of struggles between the princes, 1657.

sented to that weak prince, that he himself was only desirous of going to Mecca; that he would unite with Murâd to oppose the infidel Dârâ, and his idolatrous general, Jeswant Sing; and then would seek a reconciliation with his father.

Shuja defeated.

Dârâ now met and defeated Shuja near Benâres, and the discomfited prince returned to Bengâl.

Aurungzîb defeats Dârâ at Ûjein, 1658.

Aurungzîb joined Murâd in Mâlwâ, and a battle between their combined forces and those of Jeswant Sing was fought near Ûjein, in which the princes were victorious. Aurungzîb still treated Murâd as his superior.

Battle of Âgra.

Dârâ now advanced one day's march from Âgra to meet Aurungzîb, and a severe engagement took place, in which Dârâ's elephant was struck with a rocket and became ungovernable, a circumstance which compelled him to alight. The sight of his elephant with empty howdah spread a panic through his army; and the battle and the cause were lost by this trifling circumstance. Dârâ fled to Delhi. Aurungzîb rendered devout thanks to heaven for his victory, and congratulated Murâd on his acquisition of a kingdom! Three days after the accomplished dissembler entered Âgra; and, finding it impossible to shake the old emperor's attachment to Dârâ, sent Sultân Muhammad to make his aged grandfather prisoner in the citadel.

Shâh Jehân taken prisoner by his grandson.

(12.) Thus ended Shâh Jehân's reign in 1658, though he lived till December 1666.

(Oliver Cromwell's death.)

Character of Shâh Jehân's reign.

This reign was the most prosperous in the annals of the empire, which enjoyed almost uninterrupted tranquillity. Delhi was rising in all its splendour. Those buildings at new Delhi and Âgra, which are still the admiration of the world, were erected under his superintendence.

Splendour of the court.

The splendour of his court, his peacock throne, worth six-and-a-half millions sterling, and the grandeur of his buildings, mark him out as the most magnificent of Indian emperors.

The student will remember that (as in France, before the revolution of 1790) the excessive luxury and splendour of the Court is a sure sign of the abject misery of the common people. So was it throughout the Mogul period.

Delhi is called by Muhammadans, Shâh-Jehân-Abâd. Old Delhi was founded 57 B.C. by a Hindû Râja. Ch. i. § 22.

His buildings.

The Tâj Mahâl at Âgra, the Mausoleum of Mumtâz Mahâl, Shâh Jehân's queen, built of white marble, and decorated with mosaics of many-coloured precious stones, is in solemn brilliance unsurpassed by any human erection.

In regard to these buildings it has been said, they "built like giants, and finished their work like jewellers." Italian artists are said to have been employed in these works.

Wealth.

(13.) Shâh Jehân left 24,000,000 pounds sterling in coin, besides vast stores of wrought gold, silver, and jewels. He accumulated treasures for Nâdir Shâh. [§ 15.]

Character.

His youth had been spent in rebellions and intrigues; but as a ruler he was beneficent and generous.

PART VIII.—AURUNGZÎB.

VI. AURUNGZÎB. (Cromwell's death. Restoration. Charles II. James II. William III. Mary II. Anne.)

§ 9. AURUNGZÎB (=*ornament of the throne*) or ÂLAMGÎR I. (A.D. 1658–1707), was the sixth Mogul Emperor.

(1.) His title was Âlam-gîr (=*conqueror of the universe*). By this he is best known in Muhammadan histories of India.

(2.) *Summary.*

Summary of Aurungzib's reign.

A. Observe the miserable duplicity and unnatural cruelty by which he obtained the throne. He has been compared to the English Richard III.

B. His policy was intolerant—the opposite of that of Akbar.

C. His constant, fruitless and exhausting contests with the Mahrattas, especially with Sivaji. He killed Sambaji, and imprisoned Sâhu. (Ch. v. § 52.)

D. His subjugation of the Dakhan kingdoms. (Ch. iv. § 23.)

E. The English had a firm footing in India before his death. (See ch. vii. § 6.)

Aurungzîb assumes the dominion, 1658.

(3.) After gaining possession of Âgra and imprisoning his father, Aurungzîb was proclaimed emperor, though he was not crowned for a year afterwards.

Final defeat and death of Dârâ, 1659.

He had still to pursue Dârâ, and to meet Shuja, who was advancing from Bengâl. The former fled to Mûltân, and from thence to one after another of the Râjpût chiefs. He was at length betrayed by the chief of Jûn, taken to Delhi, where he was paraded through the streets, and put to death as an apostate from Muhammadanism. Aurungzîb affected to weep over his brother's head!

Shuja's defeat, 1660.

Shuja was soon overthrown by Mîr Jûmla. Meanwhile Aurungzîb's son, Muhammad Sultân, had deserted to Shuja, married his daughter, and then again joined Mîr Jûmla. For this act of disobedience he was kept in prison for seven years in Gwâliôr by his father.

[This was the state prison. Prisoners were compelled there to drink a narcotic, which enfeebled their powers of body and mind.]

Shuja with all his family perished miserably in Arakân, whither he had fled.

Death of Shuja, 1660.

Suleimân, son of Dârâ, was also taken, and consigned with all the other members of the family to Gwâliôr, where he soon died.

Death of Murâd, 1661.

Murâd, on some frivolous excuse, was put to death, A.D. 1661.

Thus, by a series of murders, Aurungzîb had now made his throne secure. He could plead his father's example. § 8 (2).

Death of Mîr Jûmla, 1662, 1663.

(4.) Mîr Jûmla, after subduing Assam, died near Dacca, while planning the conquest of China. Thus was the emperor relieved of the presence of a minister and general whose abilities and renown excited his jealous fears.

Aurungzîb's illness, 1662.

(5.) Aurungzîb had now a violent illness, which shook the foundation of his power. During this sickness of the emperor, Jeswant Sing, the powerful Râjpût chief of Jôdhpûr, whose dominions extended from Gujarât to Âjmîr, and Muhâbat Khân (son of the great

Intrigues.

general) from Kâbul, combined to effect the release of the ex-emperor Shâh Jehân.

Intrigues were also made by various parties to place one of Aurungzîb's sons Muazzim, Akbar, or Azam, on the throne. The excitement of danger restored him to health, and by energy and promptitude he defeated all these projects.

(6.) It was now that Sivajî came to an open rupture with the emperor. (Comp. ch. v. § 17, &c.) Sivajî, 1662.

Shayista Khân, son of Nûr Jehân's brother, Asaf Khân, was then viceroy of the Dakhan, and resided at Aurungâbâd. Driven from thence by Sivajî, he was made viceroy of Bengâl in 1663. Shayista Khân.

The expeditions of the emperor's generals into the Dakhan, Sivajî's visit to Delhi, his escape, his treaty with Aurungzîb, and his career till his death in 1680, are given in ch. v. § 15–26. Sivajî, 1662–1680.

(7.) Shâh Jehân died in A.D. 1666: an almost forgotten prisoner. Shâh Jehân's death, 1666.

About this time Little Thibet and Chittagong were added to the emperor's dominions.

Disturbances in Afghânistân followed, which do not concern Indian history.

In 1676, the Satnarâmis, near Nârnôl, rebelled. These fanatics imagined themselves invincible; and Aurungzîb with his own hand wrote texts from the Kurân, to be fastened on the standards of his troops, to dissolve the spells of the rebels. They were defeated and dispersed; but this led to the imposition of the Jizya, a poll-tax on all infidels. The fanatics of Nârnôl, S.W. of Delhi, 1676. The *Jizya* imposed.

This fanatic proceeding shook the very foundations of the Mogul dominion. Religion has been the hinge on which Indian affairs have generally turned: Muhammadan bigotry prepared the ruin of this splendid empire.

(8.) Discontent now spread, rapidly and with reason, throughout every class of Hindûs: the tolerant system of Akbar had been formally abandoned. A letter, ascribed to Jeswant Sing, is still extant, in which the writer expostulates with the emperor on his intolerance; commends the former princes of the house of Teimûr Discontent excited by the Emperor's bigotry. Jeswant Sing's wise advice.

for their liberality; declares that the empire is going to ruin; and that every species of misgovernment and oppression is rife throughout the land. Jeswant Sing died in 1677.

Râjpût rebellion, 1678.

(9.) Aurungzîb's arbitrary conduct towards the widow and children of Râja Jeswant Sing, kindled the enmity of the Râjpûts into a flame.

Dûrga Dâs, a faithful noble of Jôdhpûr, Râm Sing of Jeypûr, Râj Sing of Mêwâr, and others, combined to protect the children of Jeswant Sing, and to resist the payment of the hated and iniquitous jizya.

Cruelty towards the rebels.

The emperor exerted himself with his usual energy. His sons—Moazzim from the Dakhan (afterwards Shâh Âlum I.), Azam from Bengâl, and Akbar—were sent into the Râjpût country, where, by the emperor's orders, all the horrors of the most ruthless war of extermination were visited upon the unhappy people. This cruel treatment, successful for the time, for ever alienated the high-spirited Râjpûts.

Rebellion of Akbar, 1680.

Dûrga Dâs adopted a policy the most calculated to wound the emperor. He induced Akbar, his favourite son, then twenty-three years of age, to rebel, promising him the assistance of the Râjpût chiefs. Akbar had soon 70,000 men under his command. But the emperor was again successful; and Akbar, his army having been wiled or terrified into desertion, fled to the Konkan, where he became a fugitive among the Mahrattas, and where Sambajî received him. Disgusted with Sambajî's manners, he soon retired to Persia, where he died in A.D. 1706. (Ch. v. § 28.)

Peace with the Râjpûts, 1681.

(10.) In 1681, Aurungzîb made peace with the Eastern Râjpûts.

Ajit Sing.

It was stipulated that Ajit Sing, son of Jeswant Sing, should be restored to his father's dominion of Mârwâr when he came of age. (Comp. § 10.) There was not, however, and could not be, any real peace.

Wars in the Dakhan, 1683-1707.

(11.) The wars of Aurungzîb in the Dakhan are the most important. He was weakening and ruining the Muhammadan kingdoms of the Dakhan and the ancient sovereignties of India, when he should have aided them and strengthened them in their contest with the common enemy, the plundering Mahrattas. (Ch. v. § 29–37.)

The impolicy of these wars.

His general Khân Jehân effected nothing against the Mahrattas.

Dilîr Khân, who succeeded him, invaded Golconda and Bîjapûr without any decisive results.

He died in 1684, neglected by the emperor.

Aurungzîb arrived at Burhânpûr in 1683, and spent two years there and at Aurungâbâd before advancing to Ahmednagar.

The magnificence of his progress surpasses anything recorded in history. A million of persons were assembled together in his camp. (Ch. v. § 35.)

Mogul armies.

(12.) In this expedition several armies were kept continually in motion, under Prince Moazzim, Prince Azam, Prince Kâm Baksh, Khân Jehân, and the emperor himself.

The great Mogul warriors around him were Dilîr Khân, Dâûd Khân Pannî, Ghâzî-ud-dîn I. (father of the great Nizâm-ul-mulk), Tokarrah Khân, Assad Khân, and his more celebrated son, Zulfikâr Khân, and a multitude of others. The last warrior is said to have fought nineteen battles with the Mahrattas in six months. The Mogul leaders.

But in warlike character the Mogul nobles in general had deteriorated. Arrayed in wadded garments, covered with plate armour, and surrounded by everything that was gay and splendid, they seemed better adapted for the splendours of a tournament than for actual war against the hardy Mahrattas. Their degeneracy. (Ch. v. § 35, 36.)

Bijapûr taken, 1686.

(13.) Bîjapûr was taken, and its monarchy finally destroyed in A.D. 1686. The chief agent in the capture was Ghâzî-ud-dîn I., father of Nizâm-ul-mulk, though the emperor himself was present. (Ch. iv. § 23.)

Golconda taken, 1687.

(14.) Golconda fell in the following year; its king, Abu Hussain, being sent a prisoner to Doulatâbâd, where he died. But of his new conquests the emperor never had more than mere military possession.

We find Cuddapa, Conjeveram, and Pânamali occupied by the imperial troops in the same year. (Ch. iv. § 25.)

Sambaji.

(15.) The capture and death of Sambajî, and the captivity of Sâhu, belong to Mahratta history. (Ch. v. § 32.) The emperor's camp for some years after this was at Brimhâpurî, on the Bima.

The wars against the Mahrattas.

(16.) The aged emperor was *apparently successful*. He took Satârâ in April 1700, and in the following months nearly all the Mahratta strongholds were seized. But the empire was tottering on the verge of ruin. He himself was eighty-one years of age. These sieges involved an immense waste of treasure and life. Every obstacle existed, arising from floods, pestilence, heat, and the nature of the country. (Ch. v. § 34–37.)

His suspicious character.

The chief peculiarity of the situation was this: the emperor himself did everything. His vigour alone kept things in order. The minutest detail of war or of government was attended to by himself. Jealous of his sons, who might remember too well his conduct to Shâh Jehân, he neither trusted them nor employed them, when he could avoid it.

Sultân Moazzim.

This distrust of all about him, the offspring of guilt, was the torment of the emperor, and one of the causes of the ruin of the Mogul empire. As an evidence of it, we find Moazzim falling under unjust suspicion, imprisoned for six years (1687–1694), and then sent as governor to Kâbul.

[Dryden died, 1701.]

In 1701 Sir W. Norris, an English ambassador, visited Aurungzib in his camp.

Mahrattas recover themselves, 1706.

(17.) The Mahrattas, with an elasticity that ever marked them, began to recover themselves, soon retook some of their forts, and so embarrassed the emperor that he withdrew to Ahmednagar, which he re-entered in 1706. He had now been twenty years engaged in these fruitless, harassing wars. The Mahratta waves swept over his track as soon as he retreated. He had made no real impression upon them; and of this he was himself aware before his death. They had

learned by years of conflict to despise and conquer their Mogul foes.

Aurungzîb's death, 1707.

(18.) Aurungzîb entered Ahmednagar but to die. His death was a melancholy one. His life had been one great mistake. He had disquieted himself in vain. Troubled with remorse; harassed by anxieties; conscious that after his death all he had tried to effect would be rendered vain by the contests of his sons for the throne; and reflecting upon the universal decay, which he could not but perceive in every part of the state, he gave utterance in his last moments to the most affecting expressions of despairing sadness: "Wherever I look, I see nothing but the Divinity. I have committed many crimes. I know not with what punishments I may be visited." Such were some of his latest words.

Aurungzîb's last sad words.

He died February 21, 1707, in the eighty-ninth year of his age. His tomb is at Rauzah, six miles from Dowlatâbâd.

His character.

Aurungzîb is the emperor most admired by the Muhammadans; for he was austere, a devotee, a just judge, a laborious ruler.

Contrast between Aurungzîb and Akbar.

Yet he was thoroughly unsuccessful. He did not maintain discipline, seeming afraid to alienate by punishing. Mistrustful of all around him, cold-hearted, and in all his dealings with Hindûs partial and prejudiced, he was the very reverse of Akbar. We find him even in 1683, at Burhânpûr, levying the jizya from all Hindûs under his sway in the Dakhan, as well as in Hindûstân. If Akbar was the real founder, Aurungzîb then was the destroyer of the Mogul dominion in India. With Aurungzîb, it has been said, the empire of the Moguls passed away; though the weakness of the paramount power was not perceived till the stern and resolute ruler had ceased to wield the sceptre.

Survey of India at this period.

(19.) At this critical period in the history of India, the thoughtful student will pause and survey the groups still on the stage from which so distinguished an actor now disappears.

Moguls. A. Of the Moguls themselves, the next section will tell us all that is necessary.

Mahrattas. B. In the Dakhan the Mahrattas (ch. v. § 37), apparently humbled, are in reality placed, by the destruction of the Dakhani kingdoms, in the most favourable position for founding a permanent dominion. The Peshwâs are coming. (Ch. v. § 40.)

English. C. The English merchants have now factories on every part of the coast (ch. vii. § 6); and the three Presidency towns and forts of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay, are under a regular government, promising stability and development.

French. D. The French, too, are flourishing. The rivalries have not begun. (Ch. vii. § 7.)

Europe, 1702-1714. E. In England Queen Anne is on the throne. Marlborough, the Zulfikâr Khân of England, is in the zenith of his glory. (Blenheim, 1704.) Gibraltar had been taken (1704). The parliaments of England and Scotland were united in the year Aurungzîb died.

[Locke died, 1704.]

1707.

Whig and Tory factions in England. Somers, 1708, to R. Walpole, 1721. The battle of Almanza, in the wars of the Spanish Succession, was gained by the Duke of Berwick the same year.

The Act of Settlement has been passed. A powerful aristocracy in England, like the clique of Omrahs in Delhi, governs the kingdom.

Portuguese. F. The Portuguese have sunk to their present level. (Ch. vi. § 20.)

Dutch. G. The Dutch are busily engaged in trade. (Ch. vii. § 4.)

Coming events. H. Soon Dupleix (1731), Clive (1743), and Hastings (1750), will be in India. Fifty years will bring us to PLASSEY (1757).

Bengâl. I. Meanwhile Mîr Jaffîr (or Mûrshed Kûli Khân), the founder of Mûrshedâbâd, is viceroy of the three Sûbâhs of Bengâl, Bahâr, and Orissa.

Guru Govind. J. The greatest of the Sikh Gurus, Guru GOVIND, a man worthy to rank with Sakya Muni, was killed in 1708. He was a man of genius and heroism.

Khâfî Khân. (20.) The chief historian of those times is styled Khâfî Khân. The emperor strove to prevent any history being written. Mir Muhammad Hushîm, however, composed his history in the latter part of the reign; but concealed it. Hence his title, Khâfî Khân. (=*the concealed*).

This historian himself was sent to Bombay in 1695, on a mission. A ship bound to Mecca had been seized by English pirates; and "although the Christians have no skill at the sword, by bad management the vessel was taken," says the report. (1693.)

Comp. ch. vii. § 6.]

Aurungzîb ordered the English factors to be seized at his ports, and the English laid hold of the emperor's officers. Khâfi Khân was to settle the dispute.

The historian says that he was received by elderly gentlemen in rich clothes, who laughed more heartily than became so grave an occasion, but were intelligent and acute.

There was no lack of dignity, order, or military display.

This was not the only case in which the English merchants came into collision with the officers of Aurungzîb.

English in Bengâl in 1686.

Sir Josiah Child made a futile attempt to effect a settlement in Bengâl, by force of arms, in 1686.

This incident excited great enmity in the emperor's mind against the English. In 1690, however, Mr. Charnock made his peace with the emperor.

PART IX.—The Six Rulers of the Falling Empire.

VII. Shâh Âlam I.

§ 10. The seventh Mogul emperor was Bahâdar Shâh (=*the valiant king*), or Shâh Âlam (=*king of the universe*) I., A.D. 1707–1712.

Civil wars on the death of Aurungzib.

(1.) On the death of Aurungzîb, there was the usual contest between the sons of the deceased emperor. (See table, p. 122.) These were three, Moazzim, Azam, and Kâm Baksh. The deceased emperor had willed that the eldest of these should be emperor, taking Delhi for his capital, and governing the north and east; while Azam was to share the dominion, having Âgra as his capital, and governing the south and south-west; and to Kâm Baksh were assigned the kingdoms of Golconda and Bîjapûr.

Vain attempt at a partition of the empire.

[Compare Charlemagne.]

June 1707.

Moazzim and Azam, however, simultaneously claimed the crown; and a bloody battle was fought south of Âgra, in which Azam and his sons were slain.

February 1708.

Kâm Baksh still refusing to acknowledge Moazzim, a battle was fought near Haiderâbâd, where he also was defeated and killed.

TABLE OF MOGUL EMPERORS, TO ILLUSTRATE CHAP. III. § 9–25 (1526–1857).

I. Bâber. § 3.

II. Humâyûn. § 4, 5.

III. Akbar. § 6.

IV. Jehângîr. § 7.

V. Shâh Jehân (3rd son.) § 8.

VI. Aurungzîb, or Alamgîr I. (3rd son), 1658–1666–1707. § 9.

- Muhammad. Died in Gwâliôr, 1667. § 9 (3).
- Muhammad Moazzim. or VII. Bahâdar Shâh, or Shâh Âlam I., 1707–1712, § 10.
  - Moiz-ud-dîn, or VIII. Jehândâr S., 1712, § 11.
    - XII. Muhammad S. 1719–1748, § 15.
      - XIII. Ahmed S. 1748–1754, § 18.
        - Bîdar Bakht, ch. v. § 107.
    - XIV. Alamgîr II., § 19, 1754–1759.
      - Alî Gohar, or XV. Shâh Âlam II., 1761–1806, § 24.
        - Jawân Bakht, § 21.
        - XVI. Akbar II., 1806–1837, § 25.
        - XVII. Muhammad Bahâdar, 1837–1857, § 25.
  - Azîm-u-shân.
    - IX. Farukhshîr. 1712–19, § 12.
  - Rafî-u-shâh.
    - X. Rafî-ud-darajât. § 13.
    - XI. Rafî-ud-daula. § 14.
- Akbar. § 9 (9). Died 1706.
- Azam, § 10. Died 1708.
- Kâm Baksh, § 10. Died 1708.
  - Shâh Jehân. § 20.

(2.) Moazzim, his brothers being thus disposed of, assumed the title of BAHÂDAR SHÂH; but is oftener called SHÂH ÂLAM I. The seventh Mogul. 1707-1712.

His great Omrahs were: Omrahs.

A. Assad Khân, a distinguished general in Aurungzîb's Dakhan wars. He died in 1716: the last of the ancient Mogul nobility.

B. Zulfikâr Khân, the son of (A) viceroy of the Dakhan. [§ 11 (5).] (Ch. v. § 37.)

C. Monim Khân, the Vazîr, an able and well-intentioned minister.

D. Dâûd Khân Pannî, one of Aurungzîb's Patân officers, acting for B [§ 12 (6).] [Ch. vii. § 7 (8).]

Others were coming into notice, especially those by whom the empire was destined to be dismembered. [Comp. § 12.]

(3.) *The Mahrattas.* The Mahrattas.

Their power was now rapidly increasing.

SÂHU was released by Prince Azam, who hoped for the assistance of the Mahrattas. 1708.

There was civil war among the Mahrattas. The Mogul Government supported SÂHU, and allowed him the *Chout*, or fourth of the revenue. (Ch. v. § 38, 39.)

(4.) *The Râjpûts.* [§ 6 (12).] Râjpûts. (Comp. p. 28 and p. 95.)

There were three great Râjpût princes at that time, and these made a league for the protection of their country against the Muhammadans. They were:—

A. the Râna of Oudipûr, whose name was Râna Umra (1700–1716);

B. the Râja of Mârwâr, Ajit Sing [§ 9 (9)], son of Jeswant Sing [§ 12 (7)], who was the acknowledged Râjpût leader; and

C. the Râja of Jeypûr, Jey Sing II., a great mathematician and astronomer.

Under these chiefs the Râjpûts obtained from Bahâdar Shâh an acknowledgment of virtual independence.

(5.) *The Sikhs.* [Ch. xi. § 22.] The Sikhs.

These were the disciples of Nanak (born near Lâhôr, in 1469), who flourished in the time of Bâber. He taught a comprehensive

and tolerant monotheism, or, more correctly, pantheism, and sought to comprehend Hindûs and Muhammadans in one. The leading notions of Sufiism and the Vêdânta (ch. i. § 15) are blended in his system. The tenets of this sect in many respects resembled those of the Vaishnavas. Their sacred book, the Adhi Granth, written in old Hindî, consists mainly of hymns of Hindû origin. The book is worshipped and chaunted; but is perfectly unintelligible to the Sikhs themselves. Persecution changed an inoffensive sect into a military commonwealth.

[Sufiism is a system of mystic pietism, prevailing chiefly among the Persian Muhammadans.]

Guru Govind, their tenth Guru or spiritual chief, in 1675 completed their organisation. He was slain by a private enemy (1708); but his relatives and followers were visited with every species of cruelty.

He was killed at Mandair, near Bidar, on the Godâvarî. There is a Sikh College on the spot.

Banda. Struggles in which both Sikhs and Muhammadans are guilty of great cruelties.

Banda was now their leader. Their hatred to the Musalmâns, inflamed by long persecutions, broke out into the most fearful atrocities.

Bahâdar Shâh in person went against them, and drove them into the hills; but failed to capture Banda, and the check to the Sikhs was merely temporary. (Comp. § 12 and ch. xi.) In this struggle the emperor spent his last years.

Death of Shâh Alam I.

(6.) This emperor died in February, 1712.

VIII. JEHÂNDÂR SHÂH.

§ 11. JEHÂNDÂR SHÂH (A.D. 1712–1713), was the eighth Mogul Emperor.

His accession, 1712.

(1.) Though he was the weakest of the brothers (table, p. 122), Mirza Moiz-ud-dîn, through the influence of Zulfikâr Khân, overcame his rivals; and, with the usual slaughter of kindred, ascended the throne.

Zulfikâr's ambition and arrogance.

(2.) Zulfikâr's motive for aiding him was the belief that the weakness and incapacity of the emperor would throw all power into his hands; but his arrogance disgusted the Omrahs even more than the low debauchery of his master.

The Two Seiads. They espouse

(3.) Farukhshîr, the second son of Azim-u-Shân, the second son of Bahâdar Shâh (see table, p. 122), escaped

the slaughter; and solicited the aid of two valiant, able, and powerful noblemen, henceforth to be very prominent in this history: SEIAD HUSSAIN ALÎ, Governor of Bahâr, and his brother SEIAD ABDULLAH, Governor of Allâhâbâd. the cause of Farukhshir.

(4.) These Seiads, the king-makers of India, espoused Farukhshîr's cause warmly; and in a battle near Âgra defeated Zulfikâr and his puppet emperor, Jehândâr. The former was strangled, and the latter was also put to death. Death of Zulfikâr and Jehândâr Shâh, Feb. 1713.

(5.) This is the place for some continuous account of the celebrated rival "king-maker," Zulfikâr Khân. His father was Assad Khân, the head of one of the oldest noble families in the empire. The Life of Zulfikâr Khân. [§ 10 (2).]

He distinguished himself under Aurungzîb in the war with the Mahrattas, A.D. 1690 (ch. iii. § 9); in the course of which, disgusted at being nominally under the prince Kâm-Baksh, he held traitorous intercourse with the Mahrattas, but at length took Ginjî. His and his father's influence gave Bahâdar Shâh the throne; and by that emperor he was made Viceroy of the Dakhan. His advice led to the release of Sâhu. He raised Jehândâr Shâh to the throne, and was his Vazîr; but fell a victim to his own treachery; for, having surrendered his master to the Seiads, he was, by their order, strangled. (Ch. v. § 34.) (The Treaty of Utrecht, 1713.)

§ 12. FARUKHSHÎR, A.D. 1713–1719: the ninth Mogul Emperor. IX. The NINTH MOGUL, FARUKHSHÎR.

(1.) The personal history of this imbecile emperor is now of much less importance than those of the powerful Omrahs who exercised the sovereignty in his name, and their four rivals. Of six of these a few particulars are added.

(2.) (1. n.) The Barha Seiads (=*descendants of the Prophet*) were a powerful tribe in Bahâr, where they The Seiads.

CHAP. III. § 12. A.D. 1713, 15.

Farukhshir, the ninth Mogul, 1713-1719.

had been long settled. The brothers Hussain Alî and Abdullah Khân were men of much courage and ability; had been promoted by Azîm-u-Shân, the emperor's father, when he was Viceroy of Bengâl. The former was now made Vazîr, and the latter commander-in-chief.

Nizâm-ul-mulk. (His name was Chên Kilich Khân. His other titles were Ghâzi-ud-din and Asaf Jâh.) (§ 16.)

(3.) (C.) Nizâm-ul-mulk (=*regulator of the kingdom*, born in 1644, and died in 1748), (see table, § 16), at that time was a veteran warrior, a man of consummate cunning, and a prominent person from this period till his death. His descendants are the Nizâms of Haiderâbâd.

Sâdat Khân, the ruler of Oudh. Died 1739. (§ 17.)

(4.) (D.) Sâdat (=*propitiousness*) Khân, originally a merchant from the Persian province of Khorasân, was the coadjutor and rival of the Nizâm-ul-mulk; held a high military command; and founded the modern kingdom of Oudh. His descendants are the present ex-princes of Oudh.

Mîr Jûmla (=*prime minister*).

(5.) (E.) Of less importance is Mîr Jûmla, a personal favourite of the emperor, who plotted unsuccessfully against the Seiads; was for a time Governor of Bahâr; and, finally, was dismissed to his native town of Mûltân. He must not be confounded with others bearing this title.

Dâûd Khân. [Ch. vii. § 7 (8).]

(6.) (F.) A warrior of great and enduring renown was Dâûd Khân, who acted for a time as Viceroy of the Dakhan, but was now removed to Khândêsh and Gujarât.

He fell in a desperate attempt to overthrow the power of Hussain Alî. These two (E. F.) failed in their attempts against the Seiads: the two former (C. D.), in due time, as we shall see, succeeded.

Farukhshîr's Queen, 1715. [§ 10 (4) B.]

(7.) Farukhshîr married a Râjpût princess, daughter of Ajit Sing, the Râja of Mârwâr. This marriage was the condition of a peace with the Râjpûts.

Intermarriages.

It will be seen that the Muhammadan emperors often married Hindû ladies. This, doubtless, was a main reason why the Mogul emperors were never (with the single exception of Aurungzîb)

bigoted Muhammadans. The mixture of races tended to preserve the imperial family from degeneracy. [§ 6 (12).]

(8.) A matter of importance in the history of British India is connected with this marriage. Surgeon Hamilton. 1716.

At the time it was pending (A.D. 1716), a deputation from the small British factory at Calcutta was sent to the emperor. It happened that with the deputation was a Scottish surgeon, Gabriel Hamilton (a name to be had in honour); and, as the emperor's marriage was delayed by his sickness, the services of the British doctor were sought for, and were successful. The emperor gratefully left it to Hamilton to choose his reward; and he, with rare disinterestedness, asked, on behalf of the Company, for the zemindârship of thirty-seven towns in Bengâl, and exemption from dues on their goods. This in a remarkable degree strengthened the position of the British in India. (Ch. vii. § 6. s.)

(9.) The most important event of this reign is the effectual check given to the progress of the Sikhs. (Comp. § 10, p. 124.) The Sikhs.

Their leader still was Banda, under whom they were guilty of great atrocities, and who was at length overcome and sent, with 740 persons (saved for the purpose from a general massacre), to Delhi. They were there exposed to every insult from the justly enraged population. Banda was the victim of the most inhuman barbarities, while his followers were beheaded on seven successive days. The Sikhs' sufferings.

They met torture and death with the most heroic courage, disdaining to a man to purchase life by renouncing their faith. The British deputation was at the time in Delhi.

They were nearly extirpated. In 1839 there were only 500,000 of them. (Ch. xi. § 22.)

(10.) The Mogul territories were now mercilessly ravaged by the Mahrattas.

CH. III. § 13–15. A.D. 1717, 19.

Muhammad Shâh, the twelfth Mogul, 1719-1748.

Nizâm-ul-mulk in the Dakhan.

Nizâm-ul-mulk (3) was made Viceroy of the Dakhan in 1719; but was soon removed to make way for the all-powerful Seiad Hussain Alî, who was so unsuccessful that he was compelled to make a treaty with Râja Sâhu, acknowledging his claim to his grandfather's possessions, with all later conquests. (Comp. ch. v. § 42.)

1717.

The Mahrattas aid Hussain, 1717-1720.

A body of 10,000 Mahrattas actually marched with Hussain Alî, to enable him to make good his position at Delhi against all rivals. One of their leaders was the first Peshwâ, Bâlâjî Vishwanâth, who remained in Delhi till he obtained (in 1720) a ratification of this treaty from Muhammad Shâh. (Ch. v. § 40.)

The utter degradation of the empire is hastening on.

Assassination of Farukhshir.

(11.) The vacillating Farukhshîr contrived several plots to rid himself of the Seiads; but Hussain Alî anticipated them by assassinating the unfortunate emperor.

1719.

X. The tenth Mogul, 1719.

§ 13. The Seiads now set up a youth called RAFÎ-UD-DARAJÂT, who died in three months, of consumption. (A.D. 1719, February—May.)

XI. The eleventh Mogul, 1719. [Addison died, 1719.]

§ 14. They then selected RAFÎ-UD-DAULA, who also died in a few months. These two names are not in the Muhammadan lists of emperors.

XII. MUHAMMAD SHÂH'S accession, 1719, Sept.

§ 15. (1.) They at length chose Roshen Akhter (see table, p. 122), who took the name of MUHAMMAD SHÂH, and was the last emperor that sat on the peacock throne of Shâh Jehân. He owed his ultimate success mainly to the firmness and ability of his mother. Thus, within twelve years after Aurungzîb's death, five princes had occupied the throne.

The overthrow of the Seiads, 1720.

(2.) *This emperor's reign, which lasted from* A.D. 1719 *to* 1748, *is one of the most eventful of the whole series.* The first great event in it was the overthrow of the "king-makers." This was effected chiefly by a com-

bination between Nizâm-ul-mulk and Sâdat Khân. The former openly rebelled, marched southward to recover his old viceroyalty of the Dakhan, and overthrew the generals sent against him by the two Seiads, whose prestige was now well-nigh destroyed. Nizâm-ul-mulk in rebellion.

The two Seiads were Shias, and their opponents were Sunnis. (§ 4.)

Hussain Alî, taking with him the emperor, left Delhi for the Dakhan to oppose Nizâm-ul-mulk; but was assassinated on the march. Hussain's death.

The surviving brother, Abdullah, acted with energy, set up another emperor in Delhi, and marched to meet the conspirators, but was defeated in *the battle of Shâhpûr*, between Delhi and Âgra; soon after which Nizâm-ul-mulk returned and took the office of Vazîr. The Battle of Shâhpûr (or *Pâdshâhpûr*), 1720.

(3.) The Râjpûts now made good their independence in Âjmîr, under Râja Ajit Sing, the late emperor's father-in-law.

(4.) Nor did Nizâm-ul-mulk long remain at court. Disgusted with the laxity that prevailed there, he retired to the Dakhan, where he became from that time virtually independent. (§ 16.) Nizâm independent, 1724.

(5.) Sâdat Khân, the Persian adventurer, who had not been long in India, following his example, proceeded to make himself independent in Oudh, of which he was governor. (§ 17.) Sâdat Khân independent. 1724.

Thus was the disintegration of the empire rapidly proceeding. The great Mahratta chieftains were rising to importance at this very period. (Ch. v. § 45.)

(6.) The attacks made by the Mahrattas upon the empire, and their struggles with Nizâm-ul-mulk will be most fittingly recorded in the history of the Mahrattas (ch. v. § 49, &c.) For ten years the old Tûrkomân was an efficient barrier against these formidable foes of the empire. But it was chiefly during this weak reign that the Mahrattas extended their supremacy.

Nâdir Shâh. 1738.

(7.) At this time (A.D. 1738) occurred the Persian invasion of India by the terrible Nâdir Shâh, "*the boast, the terror, and the execration of his country.*" This famous warrior, a shepherd from the shores of the Caspian, had delivered Persia from foreign invaders; and had usurped the throne of the country which he had liberated. (Ch. v. § 50.)

Death of Sâdat Khân.

It is said, on what seems sufficient authority, that he was invited to India by Nizâm-ul-mulk and Sâdat Khân; that he reproached them in Delhi with their perfidy, and spat on their beards; that the two disgraced traitors resolved to take poison; that Nizâm-ul-mulk, however, only pretended to commit suicide; but that Sâdat Khân, outwitted by his rival, really did so; while the former, in after days, was wont to make merry at his too credulous rival's expense. It is certain that Sâdat Khân died while Nâdir Shâh was in possession of Delhi.

The trick.

1739.

Dakhan affairs, 1741.

(8.) The Peshwâ, Bâjî Râo, died in 1740. (Ch. v. § 53.) This led Nizâm-ul-mulk, whose power in Delhi was supreme, again to leave court for the Dakhan (1741). His eldest son, Ghâzî-ud-dîn (III.), and his relative, Kamr-ud-dîn, were left as the emperor's confidential advisers. He died the same year as the emperor, A.D. 1748. (See table on p. 132.)

Death of Nizâm-ul-mulk.

[Pope died, 1744.]

(9.) The Rohillas at this period rose into importance. The district now called Rohilkhand was occupied by Alî Muhammad, an Afghân freebooter, in 1744. (Ch. v. § 53.)

The Afghân invader, Ahmad Shâh Abdâli.

(10.) And now appeared another, and the last, of the great invaders of India; one who changed the whole history of the land; who six times passed the Attock—the first time in the army of Nâdir Shâh, and the last time to break the Mahratta power at the FOURTH battle of Pânipat—AHMAD SHÂH ABDÂLÎ. (Ch. v. § 58.)

(Or *second.*)

NOTE.—He rebuilt Kandahâr, and made it his capital. He had been Nâdir's treasurer; and made off with all the money on his master's assassination, June 8, 1747.

This was the Abdâlî's first appearance in India at

the head of an army; but the valour of Prince Ahmad (the heir apparent), and of the Vazîr (1748) for the time rolled back the tide of invasion. (Ch. v. § 58.)

From this expedition the prince Ahmad Shâh was recalled by the tidings of the death of his father.

The battle of *Sirhind*, where the Abdâlî was defeated, was *the last great effort of the Mogul empire.* The Battle of Sirhind: the two *Ahmads*, 1748.

(11.) During this expedition, in 1748, the faithful Vazîr Kamr-ud-dîn was killed by a shot while praying in his tent. He was Muhammad's faithful tried friend and companion; and his death hastened that of his master, which happened in April, 1748, after a troubled reign of nearly thirty years. The Death of Kamr-ud-dîn, and of Muhammad Shâh, 1748.

(12.) During this reign the north-eastern Subâhs became virtually independent. (§ 9.)

Mûrshed Kûli Khân, of Bengâl, a most able and energetic ruler, was succeeded in 1725 by Shuja-ud-dîn, who died while Nâdir Shâh was in Delhi.

His son was overthrown by a servant of his father, *Alî Vardi Khân*, a man of talent and experience, whom the emperor confirmed in his usurped dominion. (Comp. ch. v. § 57.)

PART X.—The Nizâm's Kingdom.

§ 16. This is the place for a summary of the history of that kingdom which Nizâm-ul-mulk founded in the Dakhan.

(1.) [See table, p. 132.] The events immediately following his death will be found in ch. viii. § 16–20. We there see Salâbut Jung, the third son of the wily old Tûrkomân, installed in Aurungâbâd, under the protection of the all-powerful Bussy. His appointment was confirmed by the emperor Ahmad Shâh. Summary of the history of the Nizâm's kingdom. June 29, 1751.

TABLE TO ILLUSTRATE CHAP. III. § 16.

THE NIZAMS OF HAIDERÂBAD, OR SUBAHDÂRS OF THE DAKHAN.

Ghâzî-ud-dîn I. (ch. iii. § 9 [12]).

Chên Kilich Khân, or Asaf Jâh, or Ghâzî-ud-dîn II., or

I. NIZÂM-UL-MULK (ch. iii. § 12). Died, 1748 (ch. viii. § 14).

- GHÂZÎ-UD-DÎN III. Ch. iii. § 16–18. Poisoned 1752. Ch. viii. § 16.
  - III. MUZAFFIR JUNG. Assassinated in 1751. Ch. viii. § 16–2
- A Daughter.
- II. NASÎR JUNG. Assass. in 1750. Ch. viii. § 16–18.
- IV. SALÂBAT JUNG. Murdered in 1763. Ch. viii. §. 20.
  - GHÂZÎ-UD-DÎN IV. or, MÎR SHAHÂB-UD-DÎN. Murderer of Alamgîr II., 1759. Ch. iii. § 19, 20.
- FERÔZ JUNG.
- V. NIZÂM ALÎ. Died 1803.
  - VI. MIRZA SIKANDER JÂH. Died 1828.
    - VII. NAZÎR-UD-DAULAT. Died 1857.
      - VIII. AFZÂL-UD-DAULAT. Died 1869.
- BASÂLAT JUNG. Died 1782. Ch. x. § 21.
- MÎR SHARÎF.
- MÎR MOGHUL.

1751.

(2.) The eldest son, Ghâzî-ud-dîn (III.), had then avoided a contest for his father's dominions. He now, despising the weak and effeminate Salâbat, induced Bâlâjî Bâjî Râo, the third Peshwâ, to aid in an effort to overthrow him. Salâbat, by a bribe of two lakhs, induced the Peshwâ to retire. (Ch. v. § 61.)

The Mahrattas bribed by both parties.

(3.) Meanwhile Bussy consolidated his power; and, maintaining strict discipline, kept his French force in a state of admirable efficiency.

Bussy in the Dakhan.

1751.

Bussy saved Salâbat by a masterly march on Pûna, and by two brilliant victories over the Mahratta horse and the entire army of the Peshwâ. An armistice being concluded, Salâbat and Bussy returned to Aurungâbâd; where Ghâzî-ud-dîn, with a large army, soon arrived; and would perhaps have succeeded in seating himself on the throne, had not the mother of the fifth son of Nizâm-ul-mulk, Nizâm 'Alî, who hoped to see her own son sûbâhdâr, administered poison to him (1752); and thus removed one of the two persons who stood between Nizâm Alî and the elevation which he afterwards attained.

(4.) The cession of a large tract of country north of the Wain Gangâ, induced the Mahrattas to depart, leaving Salâbat unmolested. Haidarâbâd now became the capital. (Ch. v. § 62.)

NOTE.—It was founded in 1585 by Muhammad Kutb Shâh. Its antient name was Bhâgnagar. It is on the river Musi, a tributary of the Kishtna. Secunderâbâd is about three miles to the north.

The Northern Sirkârs ceded to the French, 1753. (These are—
1. Guntûr.
2. Condapilly.
3. Ellôre.
4. Râjamandrî.
5. Chicacole.)

(5.) In 1753, Bussy, having been ill-treated by the Subâdar, managed things with such a firm and skilful hand, that he contrived to obtain, as the price of his forgiveness, a grant of the Northern Sirkârs, stretching along the coast for nearly 400 miles from the Chilka lake to the Pennâr, possessing an area of 17,000 square miles, well watered by the Kishtna and Godâvarî, and yielding an annual revenue of £400,000. This was by far the most valuable possession up to that time acquired by any European power in India.

(Ch. xii. § 12.)

(6.) In 1755 Bussy accompanied Salâbat on an expedition to Mysôr; in 1756 he was compelled by intrigues to defend himself against Salâbat, who had been induced to dismiss him; and in 1758 he saved Salâbat from falling beneath the intrigues of his brother Nizâm Alî, and the minister Nawâz Khân. Nizâm Alî was commander-in-chief, and an inveterate traitor. Basâlat Jung was minister, and in the interest of Nizâm Alî.

Bussy recalled by Lally.

(7.) On the 18th June 1758, Bussy was recalled by Count Lally, and was compelled to retire from the Dakhan when he

was arbiter of its destinies. (Ch. viii. § 31.) This was a terrible blow both to Bussy and Salâbat.

(Ch. ix. § 14.) The Marquis de Conflans, who was left in charge of Masulipatam, mismanaged affairs, and alienated the people; and in the following year Colonel Forde, sent by Clive from Calcutta, drove the French from the Northern Sirkârs, and obtained a grant of them from the terrified Salâbat Jung.

The French driven from the Northern Sirkârs, 1759.

This was confirmed by the emperor in 1765. (Ch. ix.)

(8.) Now came the contest between the Peshwâ, Bâlâjî Râo, and Salâbat Jung. (Ch. v. § 68.)

Nizâm Alî. (9.) Salâbat Jung was dethroned in 1761 by his brother Nizâm Alî, and was put to death by him in 1763. Nizâm Alî then invaded the Carnatic, but was stopped by the English. Negotiations were entered into for an imperial grant of the Northern Sirkârs, which was given; but with unaccountable timidity, the Madras Presidency actually negotiated with Nizâm Alî, and by the treaty of 1766 agreed to hold the Northern Sirkârs under the Nizâm, and to pay him eight lakhs a year as a tribute for them! Guntûr alone was not to be taken by the English till the death of Basâlat Jung, to whom it had been given as a jâghîr.

The Northern Sirkârs.

Madras timidity.

Guntûr. (Ch. x. § 21.)

(10.) The affairs of the Nizâm are now mingled up with those of the Mahrattas and with Mysôr, and must be studied in chaps. v. and xii.

(11.) In 1798 Lord Wellesley made a treaty with the Nizâm, by which a contingent of 6,000 troops was to be supported by the Nizâm, and the French expelled. This alliance has not been broken.

Hyderâbâd brought under the Subsidiary System, 1798. (Ch. x. § 40.)

The districts of Ballâri (Bellary) and Kadapa (Kûrpa or Cuddapa), commonly called the "ceded districts," were made over in 1800 for the support of this contingent. Major (Sir T.) Munro was appointed collector, and held the appointment for eight years. There he died, when visiting them as G. of Madras. (Ch. x. § 84.)

The ceded districts.

Munro.

(12.) Nizâm Alî died in 1803, four days after the great war began. Metcalfe was Resident at Haidarâbâd from 1820 to 1827. (Ch. x. § 105.) He introduced great reforms. In reference to the Haidarâbâd court at this period, it was said that, "it was a sort of experiment to determine with how little morality men can associate together." The scandals connected with the house of Palmer & Co. must be studied in his life.

Sikander Jâh, his son, was put on the throne by Lord Wellesley. The Haidarâbâd authorities scandalously neglected their

obligations during the war of 1803; yet Lord Wellesley generously made over Berâr, taken from Nâgpur, to the Nizâm.

He died in 1828. Nazîr-ud-daulat succeeded him. He died in 1857. The next Nizâm was Afzâl-ud-daulat. He died in 1869.

(13.) In 1853 arrangements became necessary to secure the payment of the British contingent, maintained according to the treaty of 1801. This the Nizâm could not secure; and certain districts in Berâr, referred to above, chiefly cotton-growing lands, were made over temporarily to the British Government. The result has been every way beneficial. Those districts themselves had been originally given to the Nizâm by the English. No royal house has so profited by English protection, under which the dynasty of the old Tûrkomân may long flourish in peace.

Berâr. (Introd. § 20.) Lord Dalhousie assumes the management of this District. (Ch. x.)

This notice would not be complete without reference to the able and enlightened minister Sir Salar Jung, who from 1853 has directed the affairs of Haidarâbâd. (Ch. x. § 177.)

PART XI.—THE PUPPET EMPERORS.

§ 17. The other kingdom then (1724) rendered virtually independent, viz., that of Oudh, the province of the Nuwâb Vazîr of the Empire, was annexed to the British empire by Lord Dalhousie in 1856.

Summary of Oudh history. (Ch. x. § 14.)

It had never peace or prosperity from the days of the famous "Persian pedlar," who founded it, till its annexation. From Sâdat Khân to Vajîd Alî Shâh, who was deposed, eleven princes had governed Oudh, including both those rulers.

(Comp. ch. ix. § 13.)

In 1819, by the advice of the Governor-General, Lord Hastings, the Nuwâb assumed the title of king, and renounced all dependence upon the king of Delhi. Its government went on from bad to worse, till there was scarcely an alternative. It was reserved for Sir John Lawrence, in 1867, to make such final arrangements as seem likely to insure the prosperity and contentment of that splendid province.

(Ch. x. § 73.)

(Ch. x. § 150.)

(Ch. x. § 190.)

XIII. AHMAD SHÂH, 1748.

§ 18. The thirteenth Mogul emperor was AHMAD SHÂH, a son of Muhammad Shâh. His great antagonist was his namesake the Abdâlî, who now made his second invasion. Peace was purchased, contrary to the wishes of the Omrahs, by the premature cession to the Afghân of the provinces of Lâhôr and Mûltân, in 1748.

The great Omrahs.

The great men of this Emperor's court were Mîr Munu, son of the late Vazîr, and Viceroy of the Panjâb; Safdar Jung, nephew of Sâdat Khân, and his successor in Oudh; Ghâzî-ud-dîn, eldest son of Nizâm-ul-mulk; and a son-in-law of the late Vazîr, who bore the title of Khân Khânân.

Ghâzî-ud-dîn IV., grandson of Nizâm-ul-mulk, 1752.

Ghâzî-ud-dîn (III.) soon left for the Dakhan, where he was poisoned. [§ 16 (3).] He left behind him a nephew, Mîr Shahâb-ud-dîn (or Ghâzî-ud-dîn IV.), then a bold boy of sixteen, destined to become the most notorious man of his time. Between him and Safdar Jung were renewed the feuds of the grandfather of the one and of the uncle of the other.

(§ 19.)

Mogul against Persians, with Mahrattas between.

The Mahrattas, under Mulhâr Râo Holkâr and Jayapa Sindia, espoused the Mogul cause; the Jâts, under Surâjmal, Râja of Bhartpûr, aided the Persian. The weak emperor feared to side with either, and was treacherous to each in turn. (Ch. v. § 64.)

Holkâr in Delhi.

Holkâr, by a bold movement, drove the emperor into Delhi, which he took. The nobles then, at the instigation of Ghâzî-ud-dîn IV., pronounced Ahmad unworthy to reign, 1754. He was blinded and consigned to prison, where he died.

Death of Ahmad Shâh.

Dismemberment of the Empire.

(Comp. Chs. viii., ix.)

The Mogul empire was now in a wretched state. Gujarât, Bengâl, Bahâr, Orissa, Oudh, Rohilkhand, the Panjâb, the Dakhan (both the portions occupied by the sons of the old Nizâm, and that possessed by the Mahrattas), and the Carnatic, were fairly severed from the empire.

Delhi waited to see what puppet the young king-maker would place on the throne.

XIV. ÂLAMGÎR II., 1754-1759.

§ 19. ÂLAMGÎR II., the fourteenth Mogul emperor, was uncle to the last emperor. (See table, p. 122.) Nothing more need be said of him than that he was assassinated by order of Ghâzî-ud-dîn (IV.) in November 1759.

Oudh: II. Safder Jung. III. Shuja-ud-doula.

The Nuwâb of Oudh, Safdar Jung, died about this time, and was succeeded by Shuja-ud-daula. (Ch. ix. § 13.) Confusion, rapine and anarchy now prevailed throughout Hindûstân.

The King-maker and Ali Gohar.

The interest of the reign centres in two persons,—the young king-maker, Ghâzî-ud-dîn (IV.),—and Alî Gohar, the heir-apparent, a gallant and generous man, thirty-two years of age at his father's accession, and afterwards emperor under the name of Shâh Âlam II.

(§ 21.)

(Ch. v. § 59.)

The former, by his proceedings in Lâhôr, brought upon the empire, and on Delhi in particular, the calamities of another invasion by the dreaded Ahmad Shâh Abdâlî. Mîr Munu had died in Lâhôr, 1756, but the Abdâlî confirmed his infant son in the government of the Panjâb, under the guardianship of the widow and Adîna Beg Khân, a Mogul of great experience, but a traitor who had always encouraged the Afghân invasions. The Panjâb soon fell into great disorder, in consequence of which the Sîkhs increased rapidly; and all were discontented. Ghâzî now thought his time was come for recovering the province; but he forgot the terrible Abdâlî, who would certainly resent any interference with his arrangements. Accordingly Ghâzî set out upon an expedition, taking with him the heir-apparent; seized upon the regent and her daughter, to whom he had been betrothed; carried them to Delhi; and appointed Adîna Beg governor of the province. Ahmad immediately crossed the Attock (it was his fourth invasion), and marched to Delhi. The adroit Ghâzî, by the intercession of his mother-in-law, was pardoned; and rose higher than before, being em-

The Abdâlî in the Panjâb, 1756.

Ghâzî-ud-dîn's expedition to Lâhôr.

ployed by the conqueror to collect tribute and to pillage.

The Abdâlî in Delhi, 1757.

The Abdâlî entered Delhi 11th September, 1757. (Comp. September, 1857. Ch. x. § 25.)

(Ch. x. § 110.)

A pestilence hastened the Afghân's return to Kâbul; but he left his son Taimûr Shâh as his viceroy in Lâhôr, and a Rohilla chief, Nazib-ud-daula, as chief minister at Delhi.

The outrages of Ghâzi-ud-din IV.

Ghâzî, as soon as he was relieved of the Abdâlî's presence, expelled Nazib; imprisoned the emperor's friend; and laid hands upon the heir-apparent himself. In fact, he gave way without restraint to the despotic violence and cruelty of his natural character. The prince, Alî Gohar, however, escaped (much as Edward I. escaped from the clutches of Simon de Montfort), and after many wanderings, engaged (1759) in the expedition, the result of which is given in ch. ix. § 13.

Shâh Âlam II. a fugitive.

Ragobâ's ill-fated expedition. (Ch. v. § 69.)

§ 20. The Mahrattas are now the central figures on the stage; for this was the time (1758) when Ragunâtha Râo (Ragobâ), at the suggestion of Ghâzî and the invitation of Adîna Beg (again a traitor), made that showy and splendid, but ill-judged and disastrous, expedition into Lâhôr, which led to the ruin of the Mahratta power, in the decisive overthrow on the *fourth* battle of Pânipat (1761).

(Or second.)

The Abdâlî's last expedition.

Ragobâ, the rash, overran the Panjâb, and returned triumphant, but with no spoil; having incurred a ruinous expense, and roused an enemy, the most formidable the Mahrattas ever encountered, the Abdâlî; who now made his fifth, last, and most terrible invasion of Hindûstân.

Delhi occupied.

The Afghân advanced towards Delhi in September 1759, prepared to take full vengeance upon the whole Mahratta race. Ghâzî, whose restless and cruel ambition had thrown everything into confusion, now con-

summated his crimes by the murder of the harmless emperor, whose headless trunk was thrown into the Jamna. This was in November, 1759.

The murder of the Emperor.

The assassin then set up a son of Kâm Baksh (see table, p. 122), by the title of Shâh Jehân; but was soon obliged to flee from Delhi, and take refuge with Surâj Mal, the Jât leader.

From this time the villain Ghâzî disappears (as does his puppet emperor) from history. In 1790 he was found by the English police in Sûrat; and was, by the order of the Governor-General, Lord Cornwallis, allowed to depart for Mecca; and has not been since heard of.

The end of Nizâm-ul-mulk's grandson, Ghâzi-ud-dîn.

The Abdâlî now a second time entered Delhi with fire and sword (1760), but soon retired to his camp at Anupshuhur, on the Ganges. The issue of his struggle with the Mahrattas is given in chap. v. § 70.

Abdâlî at Delhi for the second time, 1760. (W. of the Ganges, 68 miles E.S.E. from Delhi.)

§ 21. The Mahrattas, under Sivadasha Râo, before the fatal battle, captured Delhi, where they elevated Jawân Bakht, a son of the absent Shâh Âlam, to the throne. There was a proposal to place Viswas Râo on the throne, but this was judged inexpedient.

The Mahrattas before the fourth battle of Pânipat.

After the fourth (second) battle of Pânipat, the victorious Abdâlî again occupied Delhi; from whence he sent an embassy to SHÂH ÂLAM, or Alî Gohar, acknowledging him as emperor, and appointing his son, Jawân Bakht, regent. He then quitted India.

(Ch. ix. § 13.)

§ 22. The proceedings of Shâh Âlam, who was fighting against the English in Bahâr, while the Abdâlî was crushing the Mahrattas at Pânipat, are given in chap. ix. § 18. Until Christmas Day 1771, the emperor was an exile, for the most part in Allâhâbâd, where he kept up a kind of court: a British pensioner. It was not worth his while, during the intervening ten years, to attempt

XV. The Nominal Emperor SHÂH ALAM II., in exile.

to return to Delhi, where Nazib, the Vazîr, with the young prince, managed affairs with great prudence.

Once more the Abdâlî came on the stage to assist Nazib. Having defeated the Sîkhs in several actions, he advanced to Pânipat; but soon returned finally to Kandahâr.

He died at Mârûf, near Kandahâr, in 1773, in his 50th year. His mausoleum is the great ornament of this city. His descendants appear in Indian history in after times. (Ch. x. § 110.)

Affairs in 1770.

§ 23. At the end of 1770 we find that Nazib-ud-daula, a virtuous and wise minister, is dead; and his son Zabîta Khân fills his place. The Mahrattas occupy Delhi, where the prince regent and royal family reside. Shâh Âlam is still a pensioner in Allâhâbâd. At this time the Mahrattas made overtures to the exiled emperor, offering for a large sum of money to restore him to his position in Delhi. The English dissuaded him from putting himself into their hands; but imposed no restraint on his actions.

Shâh Âlam joins the Mahrattas. (Comp. Ch. ix. § 13-28.)

In 1771 he thus, escorted by an English force, crossed the borders of the district of Allâhâbâd, to join his new friends the Mahrattas; and from that time the Mogul sovereign never claimed the right to interfere in the provinces to the east of that boundary. (Ch. v. § 81.)

There were now two great parties in Delhi, the Musalmâns, anxious to retain their scanty possessions; and the Mahrattas, striving to recover what they had lost at Pânipat.

Zabîta and his army were soon driven out of Delhi, and the Mahrattas were supreme. (Ch. v. § 85.)

§ 24. We shall not pursue the history of the nominal rulers of Delhi in detail. A few particulars will suffice to connect it with the other parts of this work.

The eldest son of Zabîta Khân was Gholâm Kâdir, who on his father's death in 1786, succeeded to his estates. This young chief asserted his claim to the honours possessed by his father, openly rebelled against the emperor, got possession of Delhi and of Shâh Âlam's person, and, under the pretence that he had concealed treasures, after heaping every species of indignity on the poor old emperor, struck out his eyes with his dagger. His sons and grandsons had been previously tortured before his eyes, August 1788. One of these latter was the very Muhammad Bahâdar, who permitted, if he did not instigate, similar atrocities in the same building, in Delhi, in 1857. (Ch. x. § 15.)

(Ch. v. § 107.)

Gholâm Kâdir's atrocities.

Shâh Âlam II. is blinded.

The poor blind emperor was soon rescued by the Mahrattas; but remained in extreme penury until, in 1803 (September 16), he was rescued by Lord Lake. (Ch. v. § 130.)

He died Dec. 18, 1806.

The sceptre of Hindûstân then passed into the hands of the British Government.

Retribution fell on Gholâm Kâdir; for, falling into the hands of Sindia, he was horribly tortured and mutilated; and at length his head was sent, to be laid at the feet of his sightless victim in Delhi. (Ch. v. § 107.)

§ 25. The eldest son of Shâh Âlam, of whose regency we have read, after many fruitless attempts to place his father in his rightful position, disappeared from the scene in 1770.

The second son, AKBAR, succeeded to the nominal dignity in 1806; and was the SIXTEENTH MOGUL EMPEROR.

XVI. Shâh Âlam's second son, AKBAR II., succeeds, 1806. (19th Nov.)

His son, MUHAMMAD BAHÂDAR SHÂH, succeeded in 1837. He was the *seventeenth and last* of the emperors of the race of Taimûr the Tatâr. For his crimes and his fate, see chap. x. § 28.

XVII. The last Mogul.

His sons and grandson, infamous for their barbarous

treatment of English women and children, were shot by Captain Hodson, near Humâyûn's tomb—the splendid monument erected by the greatest of the Moguls to the memory of his father (September 22, 1857).

§ **26.** This sketch shows us seventeen emperors of one family reigning in succession in Delhi; a circumstance without a parallel in Indian history. This result was mainly due to Akbar's genius, policy, and personal character.

Of these, only six can be considered as real sovereigns.

Struggles for the throne.

Their history exemplifies the two ways in which the course of Oriental dynasties always runs. There is first a kind of "natural selection," by which, at the death of a ruler, the strongest surviving scion of the race, after conquering and putting to death the weaker members of the family, ascends the musnud. This, in the case of the Moguls, kept the reins of empire for nearly two centuries in vigorous hands.

Puppet emperors.

Then, when there are no strong men to dispute the succession, the authority falls into the hands of powerful ministers, who place the imperial puppet on the throne, consign him to oblivion, and govern in his stead.

From Akbar to Shâh Alam I., the former course was pursued; there was a contest at each vacancy, and the strongest grasped the reins; after that time, the latter alternative prevailed, and till the rescue of Shâh Âlam II. by Lord Lake (from which time there was really no emperor), we see a succession of powerful and unscrupulous men, consisting of Zulfikâr Khân, the Barha Seiads, Ghâzî-ud-dîn, Gholâm Kâdir, Mahâdajî Sindia, and Daulat R. Sindia, supreme in Delhi.

What did the Moguls do for India?

§ **27.** In bringing this summary of the Mogul history to a close, we pause to ask, what this splendid line of emperors did for India? Magnificent palaces, mausoleums, mosques, and minârs, attest their wealth and taste; but we find among their remains scarcely any traces of those works which really contribute to the welfare of a people.

Their works.

The few roads made by Muhammadan rulers were for the passage of their troops; and their canals and tanks were mostly for the supply of the royal palaces.

Everything seems to prove that the *people* were little considered. These rulers, with the splendid exception of Akbar,

governed India solely with a view to their own dignity and convenience.

The Moguls had to contend with Afghâns, Râjpûts, and Mahrattas. (Nâdir Shâh occupied Delhi without opposition.) Against the Afghâns they strove with varied success: the Abdâlî was their undoubted conqueror. The Râjpûts they were able first to subdue, and then to attach to themselves. Aurungzîb never really mastered the Mahrattas, and they soon occupied Delhi. The English have succeeded to their dominion; yet with the Moguls, as such, England has fought no battle.

Their contests.

England released Shâh Âlam II. in 1803, pensioned his son, and transported his grandson—the justice of whose doom no one will be willing to dispute.

CHAPTER IV.

A SUMMARY OF THE HISTORY OF THE DAKHAN.

From Sansk. DAKSHIṆA = Southern.

PART I.—Fragments of Early Dakhan History.—1294.

Progress of Muhammadan power in India, 711. (Târik and Mûsa conquer Spain.) 1022.

§ 1. About three hundred years after the first entrance of the Musalmâns into India under Muhammad Kâsim (A.D. 711), the first permanent establishment of a Muhammadan dominion was made in Lâhôr by Mahmûd of Ghaznî (ch. ii. § 10), A.D. 1022.

This did not, however, affect the Dakhan. There various flourishing kingdoms continued to exist, governed by Hindû Râjas. (Comp. ch. ii., Table, § 3.)

1294. First Muhammadan invasion of the Dakhan.

Nearly three hundred years after this (A.D. 1294), the Muhammadan banner was at length carried across the Nerbudda by Allâ-ud-dîn Khiljî, the nephew, murderer, and successor of Ferôz Shâh. (Ch. ii. § 31, p. 69).

The Dakhan now became an extended battle-field; and was so from that time till 1819. Muhammadans are seen fighting there against Hindûs; the Mogul emperors against the Dakhan Muhammadan States; the Mahrattas against both; Haidar Alî against the Mahrattas; and, finally, we see the English giving peace to the whole.

The Dakhan a battle-field for five centuries.

(Comp. ch. v., xii.)

§ 2. The Dakhan is the country south of the Narbaddah and Mahânadî rivers; or, all south of the Vindhya range. In general we now restrict the name to the high table-land between the Taptî and Kishtna: the Dakhan proper.

Use of the term Dakhan.

Here was the cradle of the vast Mahratta confederacy. Here too were the Dakhan Muhammadan kingdoms; and here was the Bijanagar Hindû kingdom, so long their rival. Here Nizâm-ul-mulk made for himself a lasting dominion. (Ch. iii. § 16.) Here was also the scene of Haidar Alî's usurpation and of Tippû's cruelties. (Ch. xii.) Here the Portuguese flourished. (Ch. vi.) Here the French and English fought. (Ch. vii., viii.)

Its rulers.
Dakhan proper.
Hyderâbâd.
Mysôr.
Koncan.
Karnatic.

§ 3. The early inhabitants of this region are called in native works foresters, goblins, and even demons. But a considerable degree of civilisation must have existed in the south, ten centuries before the Christian æra.

Early settlers in the Dakhan.

The tradition, that the Apostle St. Thomas visited India, and was martyred at the place still called St. Thomé, in the vicinity of Madras, is highly credible.

The very early native literature of South India is deeply imbued with Christian influences.

The sage *Agastya*, probably in the seventh century B.C., seems to have done much to introduce science and philosophy in the south, bringing thither, in fact, the elements of Brahmanical civilisation. He is identified with the star Canopus. To him is attributed the foundation of the science of Tamil grammar and medicine. None of his works are extant; though many books pass current under his name.

Agastya.

Languages of the Dakhan.

§ 4. Five languages were anciently enumerated as spoken in the Dakhan: Tamil, Kanarese, Telugu, Mahratta, and Uriya. To these we must add the language of the Gônds and other mountain races; with the Tuḷuva and Malayâlim, which are dialects of the one ancient Drâvidian language, of which Tamil, Kanarese, and Telugu are offshoots. These are radically independent of Sanskrit; though they have been enriched by copious additions from that language. Mahratta and Uriya are Sanskrit dialects.

The Tuḷuva country is the chief seat of the followers of Mâdhava.

The *Tuḷuva* (or Tuḷu) is the language of South Kanara. It most resembles Kanarese; but contains a great admixture from all the vernaculars of South India.

The people who speak these languages (except the Uriya) are called DRÂVIDIANS. They were probably among the very earliest settlers in India, being of Scythic origin.

The Tamil kingdoms in the South.

§ 5. In the extreme south two very ancient kingdoms, both Tamil, existed—the Pâṇḍya and the Chôla. A Pâṇḍyan king is said to have twice sent an embassy to Augustus. We are told that in the thirteenth century in the south "not a span was free from cultivation" in these provinces. The Pâṇḍyan capital was Madura. That of the Chôla kingdom was Conjeveram (Kânchipuram), till A.D. 214, when Tanjore was founded by Kullôttunga, who made it his residence.

Prop. *Mad'hurâ.*

This is its form in Tamil. (Ch. i. § 12.)

The Pâṇḍya kingdom was probably founded in the fifth century B.C. Many traditions exist regarding the PÂNḌYÔN rulers. Several of them were distinguished Tamil authors.

The last of the Pâṇḍyas was Kûna Pâṇḍya (=*the hunch-back*), whose probable date is the middle of the eleventh century A.D.

The south of India is remarkable for three things: the magnificence of its temples, built in a style peculiar to the south; its wonderful system of irrigation; and its languages, hardly inferior in copiousness, flexibility, and sweetness to Sanskrit itself.

Madura. The Nâyakan princes.

§ 6. In Madûra the Nâyakan princes (the first of whom was *Visvanâtha*, probably from Vijaya-nagar, an officer of the famous Krishna Râya, 1559) ruled, till

conquered in A.D. 1736 by the Nawâb of Arcot. It is said to have been in 1400 a city "like Delhi." Its rulers were perpetually at war with the Chôla kings.

The origin of the Poligârs (=*tent-men*) of the south is thus told: *Visvanâtha* placed each of the seventy-two bastions of the Madura fort under a chief, to whom he assigned villages on feudal tenure. Their descendants were the Poligârs of South India. — The Poligâr chiefs.

The greatest of these Nâyakan princes was *Tirumala*, who died in 1659. — Tirumala Nâyakan.

In the Madura kingdom lived the three great Jesuit missionaries, Robert de Nobilibus (1606–1648), John de Britto (1674–1693), and R. C. Beschi (1726)?

De Britto died a martyr, having been cruelly put to death by the Sêthupathi of Râmnâd.

We learn from De Nobilibus that in 1610 the Madura college contained 10,000 students. — The Madura Jesuit missionaries.

§ 7. The Chôla kingdom was in later times subject to Vijaya-nagar (Bijanagar); and at length was merged in the Mahratta kingdom of Tanjore. (Ch. v. § 17.) — The end of the Chôla Kingdom.

§ 8. The Çêra kingdom comprehended Travancore, Malabâr, and Coimbatôr. It existed from the first to the tenth century A.D.; being absorbed into the Bellâla State. — The Çêra kingdom.

The Western Coast was probably colonised by Brâhmans from Hindûstân. The tradition is that Parasu-Râma caused the sea to retire from the foot of the Ghât, and gave the districts of Malayalam, Malabâr, and Kanara, thus recovered, to the Brâhmans. — "*Râma of the Axe*," the VIth *Avatâr*, or incarnation of Vishnu.

In the ninth century the southern part broke up into many small principalities, one of which (Calicut) was ruled by the Zamorins in A.D. 1497, when Vasco de Gâma landed there. — The Zamorin. (Ch. vi. § 3.)

They continued to rule there till the invasion of Haidar Alî in 1766. Their ancestor is said to have been Mân Vikrama, a man of the cowherd caste. — (Ch. xii. § 16.)

The Ballâla Râjpûts in the Kanarese country.

§ 9. A powerful dynasty called the family of Ballâla (or Velâla), who were Râjpûts, reigned over the Kanarese country in the eleventh century.

Their capital was Dwâra Samudra (=*ocean-gate*), about 100 miles N.W. of Seringapatam. (Ch. xii. § 2.) They were subverted by the Musalmâns, about A.D. 1310. (§ 17.)

Vitala Déva, a king of this race, was converted to the Vaishnava faith by the great reformer *Râmânuja*, in 1133. The convert took the name of VISHNU VERDDHANA.

The Telugu country.

§ 10. The Yâdavas, from the ninth to the end of the twelfth century, ruled over the eastern portion of the Telugu country.

These Yâdavas were Râjpûts, and came from Kâttiwâr. They ruled at Vijaya-nagar before the foundation of the great state there in 1336.

The Châlûkyas. *Kaliyánf*, in the Map.

§ 11. Râjpûts of the Châlûkya tribe ruled in Kalyân (*Kalûnî*), about 100 miles west of Haidarâbâd.

From A.D. 250 to 1182.

The capital of one branch of this family was at one time Râjamandrî (from the end of the eleventh to the end of the thirteenth century). They finally fell under Warangal. Before that it is said to have been at Shrîkâkolam (Chicacole), and the dynasty to have been of the Pândava race.

A prime-minister of the court of Kalyân, whose name was BASAVA, in the 12th century, founded the sect of Linga worshippers. The worship of the Linga was long before this an essential part of the Saiva system. BASAVA is now worshipped as an incarnation of the Sacred Bull of Siva. His system is very widely prevalent in South India. Basava was the cause of a revolution, which brought the Châlûkya dynasty to an end, and Kalyân came under the Dêoghur kingdom. (§ 14, 15.)

Warangal (or Orankal).

§ 12. More important are the Kings of Andhra, or Telingâna, who at the Christian æra reigned in Magadha, and whose capital in after times was Warangal (founded about A.D. 1088), eighty miles east of Haidarâbâd. In A.D. 1323 Warangal was taken by the Muhammadans. (§ 19, p. 151.)

It soon regained its independence, and became the seat of the Râjas of Telingâna. They were at perpetual war with the Bâhminî kings, until Warangal was destroyed by Ahmad Shâh (A.D. 1435). (Ch. ii. §36.)

§ 13. Orissa was governed by princes of the Kêsari family till A.D. 1131. The Gajapatis ruled in Kuttack till 1568. Râjas from the north, of a race called the "*Ganga Vansa*," are also mentioned. It was annexed by Akbar, A.D. 1576. (Ch. iii. § 6.) Orissa. (=*Elephant-lords.*)

Yavanas, whose origin is unknown (perhaps Bactrian Greeks), invaded Orissa in 327, and reigned there to A.D. 473.

§ 14. As belonging to the Mahratta country (Mahârâshtra=*great kingdom*), we read in the Periplûs, (a Greek work, attributed to Arrian, and probably written in the second century A.D.), of Baryagaza (=*Broach*), Plinthana (=*Paithun*), and Tagara (not now certainly known). The Mahratta country.

The "Periplûs" describes a voyage from the Red Sea to Musiris, supposed to be Mangalore. [*Gr.*: Periplous =*voyage round.*]

Tagara was a famous Râjpût city, probably on the banks of the Godâvarî, a little N.E. of Bhîr, though some think that it was the modern Daulatâbâd. At Paithun, on the Godâvarî, reigned Sâlivâhana, said to have been the son of a potter, A.D. 77. This date forms the æra still in use south of the Narbaddah. From Paithun, the capital was, it seems, removed to Dêoghar, the modern Daulatâbâd. Tagara. Sâlivâhana, A.D. 77. (*Paithun* is 32 miles from Aurungâbâd, on the N. bank of the Godâvarî.)

Our knowledge of the Mahrattas dates from the combination and development of the race under Sivajî. (Ch. v.)

§ 15. In the beginning of the twelfth century, Râjas allied to the Ballâlas of Andhra, ruled in this Dêogiri Daulatâbâd.

(=*hill of the gods*), [Dêoghar, or Daulatâbâd]. Some traditions trace these kings up to Sâlivâhana. The whole country at this period was divided among a great number of petty independent Râjas.

These were very wealthy, and the Dakhan seems to have enjoyed peace and prosperity under their rule.

PART II.—A.D. 1294–1347.—From the First Irruption of the Muhammadans to the Foundation of the Bâhminî Dynasty.

Allâ-ud-dîn Khiljî, 1294.

§ 16. Allâ-ud-dîn Khiljî (*the Sanguinary*), in A.D. 1294, with 8,000 cavalry, marched through Berâr to Ellichpûr, and from thence to Dêogiri (Dêoghar), where Râm-dêo-Râo-jadow was then reigning. After a show of resistance the Râjpûts agreed to pay an immense ransom, and to cede Ellichpûr and its dependencies.

The Muhammadans in the Dakhan.

The weakness of the Hindû states in the Dakhan was thus unveiled to the unscrupulous Musalmân leaders; and the Muhammadans, by the unauthorised and rash zeal of Allâ, obtained a footing in the south.

The student will notice that this beginning of the work, which Aurungzîb nearly accomplished, of bringing all India under one dominion, was contemporaneous with the attempt of Edward I. (1272–1307) to reduce all Great Britain under one dominion; a work which the union of the English and Scottish Parliaments, in A.D. 1707, the year of Aurungzîb's death, may be said to have accomplished. (Ch. ii. § 31.)

In surveying the ruins of the vast Muhammadan states, which from this time existed in the Dakhan, we must acknowledge that their existence there was unattended with any real benefit to the people.

Kâfûr's expeditions. (Malik=*king*.)

§ 17. Four great expeditions into the south were undertaken during the reign of Allâ-ud-dîn, under Malik Kâfûr (ch. ii. § 32), A.D. 1306, 1309, 1310, 1312.

Kâfûr seems to have taken Madura in the last of these expeditions.

In the course of these Râm-dêo was induced to visit Delhi, where his treatment was so generous, that he returned the attached and faithful vassal of the emperor. The Ballâla Râjas of Karnata were also conquered; (§ 9.) Warangal made tributary; and the whole of the south ravaged as far as Râmêshwar (Râmiseram), where a mosque was built, as the sign of Muhammadan supremacy.

It seems doubtful whether the Râmêshwar here mentioned is not Cape Râmas, near Goa. This seems more probable.

§ 18. Harpâl, a son-in-law of Râm-dêo, strove to throw off the yoke; but was overcome and flayed alive by Mubârik Khiljî (A.D. 1318), who led the expedition himself. (Ch. ii. § 33.) At the same time Malabâr was conquered by Khûsrû, who avenged the crimes of Allâ-ud-dîn by the murder of every member of his family. (Ch. ii. § 33.)

Mubârik Khiljî, 1318.

Khûsrû.

§ 19. Jûna Khân, the second of the house of Tughlak, both before and after his accession, led armies into the Dakhan. (A.D. 1322–1326.)

Jûna Khân. (Ch. ii. § 34.)

After a severe repulse, he finally took Warangal. (A.D. 1323.) Fugitives from this place are said to have founded Vijaya-nagar (Bijanagar, § 7), on the banks of the Tûmbhadra, A.D. 1336. Their names were Bukka and Hârihâra. It was twenty-four miles in circumference, and its ruins are of the highest interest.

Warangal.

Bijanagar. (Sometimes called *Anna-gûndi*. It is 29 miles N.W. of Bellary.)

From time immemorial there had been a Hindû city on this site; which was said to have been the royal city of Hanumân and Sugriva, the faithful, and now deified, allies of Râma.

Mâdhava Vidhyâranya, a learned Brâhman, was prime-minister here, and is still a great authority in the south in philosophy and grammar. (A.D. 1336.)

Mâdhava Vidhyâranya.

This kingdom became the most powerful south of the Narbaddah. (§ 29.) From 1490 to 1515 it was at its zenith of prosperity, and ruled over the whole Carnatic.

Jûna Khân also took Bîdar.

CHAP. IV. § 20. A.D. 1347.

The first independent Muhammadan state.

The great revolt in the Dakhan, in the time of Jûna Khân, 1347.

[This was the time of Edward III. and the Black Prince.]

Zuffir Khân.

(Ch. ii. § 36.)

§ 20. As this emperor's reign was marked by the establishment of the powerful Hindû kingdom of Vijaya-nagar, so was it also by the establishment of the *first independent* Muhammadan kingdom in the Dakhan. The Amîrs of the Dakhan had incurred the displeasure of Muhammad Khân, by sheltering some rebellious nobles from Gujarât. These broke out into rebellion, and at length ZUFFIR KHÂN, an Afghân, was recognised as their leader, and having overthrown the imperial general, was elected their sovereign. He had been the slave of a Brâhman called Gangu, who is said to have foretold his rise, and to have shown him singular kindness.

The foundation of the Bâhmini dynasty, 1347.

He assumed the title of Sultân Allâ-ud-dîn Hussain Gangu Bâhminî, the last two titles (=the Brâhman Gangu) being in honour of his old master and benefactor, whom he made his treasurer: the first Hindû who held high office under a Muhammadan ruler. This was A.D. 1347. The new sultân was wise and conciliating, as well as brave. He reigned for ten years at peace with the Hindû kings. At the time of his death the kingdom embraced Mahârashtra, large portions of Telingâna, with Raichûr and Mûdgal in the Carnatic.

The capital of this kingdom was Kulbûrga, west of Golconda, 107 miles W. from Haidarâbâd. Here was the seat of a very ancient Hindû sovereignty.

This was the grand rebellion by which the power of Delhi was driven north of the Nerbudda, not to cross it again till the days of Akbar.

This kingdom was at its zenith in 1378 to 1422, under Mahmûd Shâh Bâhminî I., and his nephew Ferôz Shâh.

The poet Hafiz, the Persian Horace, even set out to visit Kulbûrga; but, frightened by a tempest, gave up the idea.

Probably four generations later than Râma.

Ahmad Shâh Bâhminî built Ahmadâbâd, Bîdar, in 1440.

Bîdar (Vidarbha) was the capital, in very ancient times, of Bhîma Sêna, whose daughter Damayantî married Nala, so famous in Sanskrit poetry.

PART III.—From the Establishment of the Bâhminî Kingdom.

§ 21. This dynasty of Bâhminî kings, eighteen in number, reigned in the Dakhan for more than 150 years. (A.D. 1347 to 1526, see table below.)

The Bâhmini Kings from 1347–1526.

§ 21. The 18 *Bâhmini* Kings of *Kulbûrga* (1347–1526).

		A.D.
I.	*Alâ-ud-dîn Hussain Gangu Bâhminî.* The founder. [Zuffir Khân.]	1347–1358
II.	*Muhammad Shâh* I. Continual war with the Hindû kingdom of Bijanagar, in which half a million of Hindûs perished. He divided the kingdom into four parts: Kulbûrga, Daulatâbâd, Telingâna, and Berâr	1358–1375
III.	*Mujâhid.* Invaded the Carnatic. Assassinated	1375–1378
IV.	*Dâud Shâh.* Assassinated after one month and five days	1378
V.	*Mahmûd Shâh* I. Encourager of literature. Charitable	1378–1397
VI.	*Gheiâz-ud-dîn.* Assassinated.	1397
VII.	*Shams-ud-dîn.* Assassinated.	1397
VIII.	*Ferôz Shâh.* The most magnificent of the dynasty. Sent an embassy to Teimûr. The "merry monarch"	1397–1422
IX.	*Ahmad Shâh* I. Founded Ahmadâbâd, Bidar	1422–1435
X.	*Alâ-ud-dîn* II. Bidar now made the capital	1435–1457
XI.	*Humâyûn Shâh Zalîm* (the Cruel)	1457–1461
XII.	*Nizâm Shâh*	1461–1463
XIII.	*Muhammad Shâh* II.	1463–1482
XIV.	*Mahmûd Shâh* II. Murder of Khâji Jehân Gawân, the best of the Indian Muhammadans	1482–1518
XV.	*Ahmad Shâh* II.	1518–1520
XVI.	*Alâ-ud-dîn* III. Murdered	1520–1522
XVII.	*Wulli-ulla-Shâh* (a pensioner)	1522–1526
XVIII.	*Kullîm-ulla-Shâh.* Died a pensioner in Ahmadnagar	1526

These kings were entirely indifferent, it would seem, to the welfare of their Hindû subjects, though in general they did not greatly oppress them. Many architectural remains attest their wealth, if not their taste. It is hard to trace any beneficial effects of their dominion.

§ 23. The *Ádil Shâhî* Kings of *Bijapûr* (1489–1686).

		A.D.
I.	*Yúsuf Ádil Shâh.* The Portuguese establish themselves in Goa .	1489–1510
II.	*Ismael.* Conqueror of Bidar	1510–1534
III.	*Mullú*	1534
IV.	*Ibrahím* I.	1534–1557
V.	*Alí.* Destruction of Bijanagar. Husband of *Chánd Bíbí* . .	1557–1579
VI.	*Ibrahím* II. Splendid mausoleum	1579–1626
VII.	*Muhammad.* Continual struggles with Sivaji. Splendid mausoleum .	1626–1656
VIII.	*Alí Ádil Sháh.* Afzal Khán's master. Ch. v. § 14 . . .	1656–1672
IX.	*Sikandar.* A prisoner	1672–1689

§ 24. The *Nizám Shâhî* Kings of *Ahmadnagar.*

		A.D.
I.	*Ahmad Nizám Shâh*	1490–1508
II.	*Burhán* I. A distinguished scholar	1508–1553
III.	*Husain.* Battle of Talikôt. Father of *Chánd Bíbí* . . .	1553–1565
IV.	*Murteza* I. (the "Madman"). The great minister Salábat Khán died 1589. Maloji in his service. Ch. v. § 7	1565–1584
V.	*Mirán Husain* (the "Parricide")	1584
VI.	*Ismael*	1584–1589
VII.	*Burhán* II.	1589–1594
VIII.	*Ibrahím*	1594
IX.	*Ahmad* II.	1594–1590
X.	*Bahádur.* (His guardian was Chánd Bíbí: see p. 97) . . .	1590–1599
XI.	*Murteza* II. Aided Khán Jehán Lódi. Malik Ambar. Annexed .	1637

Dismemberment of the great Bâhmini dominions. Ch. IV. § 22, 23. A.D. 1526.

The date of the extinction of the Bâhminî kingdom (A.D. 1526) is remarkable also as the date of the foundation of the Mogul Empire in India. (Ch. iii. § 1.) The last real king of the dynasty was Muhammad II. (1463–1486), who subdued Amber Râi of Orissa, and added the Konkan to his dominions, 1477. Mahmûd II., his successor, was a weak prince. Khâji Jehân Gawân was the able, noble, and uncorrupt minister of Muhammad II. He took Conjeveram. By him the kingdom was divided into eight provinces. He was treacherously slain by his jealous fellow-courtiers.

Khâji Gawân.

§ 22. The governors of the provinces into which this great Dakhani kingdom was divided after the murder of Gawân (the infamous contrivers of the death of that upright minister), made themselves independent at different periods after A.D. 1489; *thus were formed, with the Bijanagar kingdom, those six powerful kingdoms of the Dakhan, which the successors of Bâber eventually subjugated.*

Six Dakhan kingdoms.

The after-struggles between the Muhammadan powers in the Dakhan and the Mogul emperors afforded an opportunity to the Mahrattas, as we shall see, to rise upon the ruins of both. No greater misfortune could have befallen the Musalmân dominion in India than this civil strife.

§ 23. Âdil Shâh founded the Bîjapûr kingdom, A.D. 1489. From him this dynasty was called the Âdil Shâhî. The kingdom survived till 1686, when it was destroyed by Aurungzîb. (Ch. iii. § 9, see table, p. 154.)

The Bijapûr kingdom, 1489–1686.

The founder, Yûsuf Âdil Shâh, was descended from Agha Morâd (Amurath II.) of Constantinople. He was a great Omrah of Muhammad Shâh II. of Kulbûrga.

Yûsuf Adil Shâh.

The struggles of the Bîjapûr rulers with Sivajî are related in chap. v. § 12, &c.

The Mahrattas were very numerous in the armies of this state. The Muhammadan kings fomented dissensions among the Hindû tribes; and might longer have held them in subjection if they themselves had been united.

The ruins of Bijapûr.

The splendid ruins of Bîjapûr still bear witness to the extraordinary grandeur of the city. The dome of the tomb of Muhammad Âdil Shâh is 130 feet in diameter, little less than that of St. Peter's at Rome.

The extent of the Bijapûr state.

The limits of the Bîjapûr state may be roughly stated to have been from the Nîra on the north to the Tûmbhadra on the south, and from the Bîma and Kishtna on the east, to the sea from Goa to Bombay on the west. (See Map.)

Ferishta, the great historian, resided at the court of Ibrahîm Âdil Shâh II., from 1589 to his death, which happened about 1612. (Ch. iii. § 6 [23].)

Ahmadnagar kingdom, 1490–1637.

§ 24. The second of these lesser Dakhan kingdoms was that of *Ahmadnagar*, governed by the Nizâm Shâhî dynasty. This was founded by Malik Ahmad, son of Nizâm-ul-Mulk Byherî, an apostate Brâhman of Bîjapûr, who chiefly brought about the murder of Gawân. He asserted his independence in A.D. 1490. This kingdom remained till 1637, when it was finally destroyed by Shâh Jehân.

The history of the sieges of Ahmadnagar and its capture in 1600, will be found in chap. iii. § 21. (See table, p. 154.)
For the history of Malik Ambar, see chap. iii. § 7 (5).

The extent of the Nagar state.

The dominion of this state extended over the Sûbâh of Aurungâbâd and West Berâr, with a portion of the Konkan from Damân to Bombay.

Ferishta was born in Ahmadnagar about 1570, and left that kingdom for Bijapûr in 1589.

The Golconda kingdom, 1512–1687. (*Golconda* is a fortress on a hill, 3 miles

§ 25. The Golconda, or Kutb Shâhî dynasty, was the third of the Dakhani Musalmân kingdoms. It was founded by Kutb-ul-Mulk in 1512. It extended from Bîjapûr and Ahmadnagar to the sea on the east. The

kingdom of Golconda was finally subverted by Aurungzîb, A.D. 1687. (Ch. iii. § 9.) W.N.W. from Haidarâbâd.)

The Patân chiefs of Savanûr, Kûrpa, and Kurnûl, made themselves virtually independent after this.

The following is a list of the rulers of this kingdom:—

1. KUTB-UL-MULK, founder . . . . 1512 to 1543
2. JAMSHÎD . . . . . 1543 to 1550
3. IBRAHÎM . . . . . 1550 to 1580
   This is the most important. His general RAFAT KHÂN conquered Râjamandri. He was one of the four confederates against BIJANAGAR.
4. MUHAMMAD KÛLI . . . . . 1580 to 1611
   He founded Haidarâbâd, first called Bhâgnagar, from his mistress; then Haidarâbâd, from his son.
5. ABDÛLLÂH . . . . . 1611 to 1672
6. ABU HUSSAIN, who died a prisoner.

§ 26. The Berâr kingdom was founded in 1484, by Fath-Ullâ Ummad-ul-Mulk, and in 1574 was annexed to the Ahmadnagar state. The dynasty was called the Ummad-Shâhî. The capital was Ellichpûr, and the royal residence was at the neighbouring fort of Gâwilgarh. The Berâr kingdom, 1484–1574. (Or *Imâd Shâhî*.)

The first to separate from the Kûlbûrga state, it was the first to perish.

§ 27. It is sufficient to name the Barîd Shâhî dynasty, whose capital was at Ahmadâbâd-Bidar; and the kingdom of Kândêsh, to which Burhânpûr, with its neighbouring fortress of Asîrgarh, belonged; and which in 1599 was incorporated by Akbar. (Ch. iii. § 22.) Barîd Shâhî.

NOTE.—BIDAR is seventy-three miles from Haidarâbâd. Its walls were six miles in circumference. (§ 20.)

§ 28. The history of these kingdoms of the Dakhan is connected with that of the Portuguese, from A.D. 1498 till the middle of the seventeenth century. (See ch. vi.) Portuguese in the Dakhan, 1493.

CHAP. IV. § 29. A.D. 1490.

The Hindû kingdom of Vijaya-nagar.

Vijaya-nagar, or Bijanagar, or Narasinga. (Comp. § 19.)

§ 29. The Hindû kingdom of Vijaya-nagar (Bîjanagar or Narsinga) long maintained its place among the powers of the Dakhan; and there Hindû valour longest stemmed the tide of Muhammadan conquest. Its limits nearly corresponded with those of the Madras Presidency. To Europeans it was known, strangely enough, as the kingdom of Narasinga. This Narasinga founded a new dynasty in 1490. He built the forts of Chandragirî and Vellore (vêlûr=*javelin town*).

The confederate Muhammadan Kings.

But in 1565, the jealousy of the Muhammadan kings of Bîjapûr, Ahmadnagar, Golconda, and Bidar, led them to combine to effect its destruction.

They were Alî Âdil Shâh, Husain Nizâm Shâh, Ibrahîm Kutb Shâh, and Alî Barîd.

Râm Râja.

The king then was Râm Râja (the seventh of the dynasty of Narasinga), son-in-law of the Krishna Râya (1509–1524), famous in the vernacular literature of the south.

Battle of Talikôt, 1565. (The Flodden Field of the Hindûs of South India.)

A battle took place at Talikôt on the Kishtna. The confederates behaved with great barbarity after their victory. Râm Râja's head was exhibited at Bîjapûr for a hundred years after, covered with oil and red paint.

The Hindû provinces subject to the Vijaya-nagar kingdom now fell into the hands of Naicks (Nâyakar), Zemindârs, or Poligârs (=*tent-men*).

The Bîjanagar kingdom was, however, for many years maintained in a feeble way at Penkonda, Vellore, Chingleput, and Chandragirî. The ruins of Bîjanagar are at *Humpi*.

Chandragirî.

The brother of Râm Râja settled at Chandragirî, eighty miles N.W. of Madras, near Tripetti. He made a grant to the English, in A.D. 1639, of the site of the city of Madras (ch. vii. § 6, *l.*), on the payment of an annual rent of twelve hundred pagodas. Seven years after this, he was a fugitive; and his conqueror, the Sultân of Golconda, gave the English a new lease on the same terms.

Madras comes into the hands of the English, A.D. 1639.

Broken up into various histories.

§ 30. The history of the Dakhan will now fall under the following topics, which will be considered in their places:—

Mogul contests in the Dakhan, A.D. 1595–1707.

(1.) The efforts of the Mogul emperors to subjugate the Muhammadan kingdoms of the Dakhan, from A.D. 1595 (AKBAR) to A.D. 1688, when the work was nominally completed by Aurungzîb, twenty years before his death. (Ch. iii. § 6 [20], &c.) The Mahrattas were, however, never really conquered by this emperor. He reduced the Muhammadan kingdoms, but their subjugation gave ampler scope to the rising Mahratta power. We have therefore,

Mahrattas.

(2.) The Mahratta history. (Ch. v.) The Mahrattas ruled in Delhi, and were only hindered by Ahmad Shâh Abdâlî from swaying the sceptre over all India.

The kingdom of Haidarâbâd, A.D. 1723.

(3.) During the reign of the twelfth Mogul emperor the empire fell to pieces. At this period we have the establishment of the power of the Sûbâhdâr of the Dakhan on an independent footing by Nizâm-ul-mulk, A.D. 1724. (Ch. iii. § 12, &c.) [See table, p. 132.]

Mysôr.

(4.) In the south, of almost equal importance is the history of Mysôr. (Ch. xii.) Haidar and Tippû maintained a long struggle with Mahrattas and English. The conquest of Mysôr by the English rendered the issue of their wars with the Mahrattas certain.

The Dakhan gained by England. A.D. 1740–1761.

(5.) But perhaps the most important portion of Dakhan history is that of the struggles of the French and English in the Carnatic, which resulted, after many brilliant achievements, in the establishment of the authority of the latter over all the South of India. (Ch. viii.)

CHAPTER V.

THE HISTORY OF THE MAHRATTAS, FROM THE BIRTH OF SIVAJÎ, A.D. 1627, TO THE PRESENT TIME.

Summary of Mahratta history.

§ 1. To make the summary of Mahratta history more intelligible, it is necessary to divide it into six periods:—

Aurungzîb.

I. Their founder, or rather temporary restorer, Sivajî's life, A.D. 1627–1680;

II. From Sivajî's death to the liberation of Sâhu, 1680–1708, after the death of Aurungzîb;

Shâh Alum I. Muhammad Shâh. Shâh Alum II.

III. To the (fourth) *second* battle of Pânipat, 1761;

Warren Hastings.

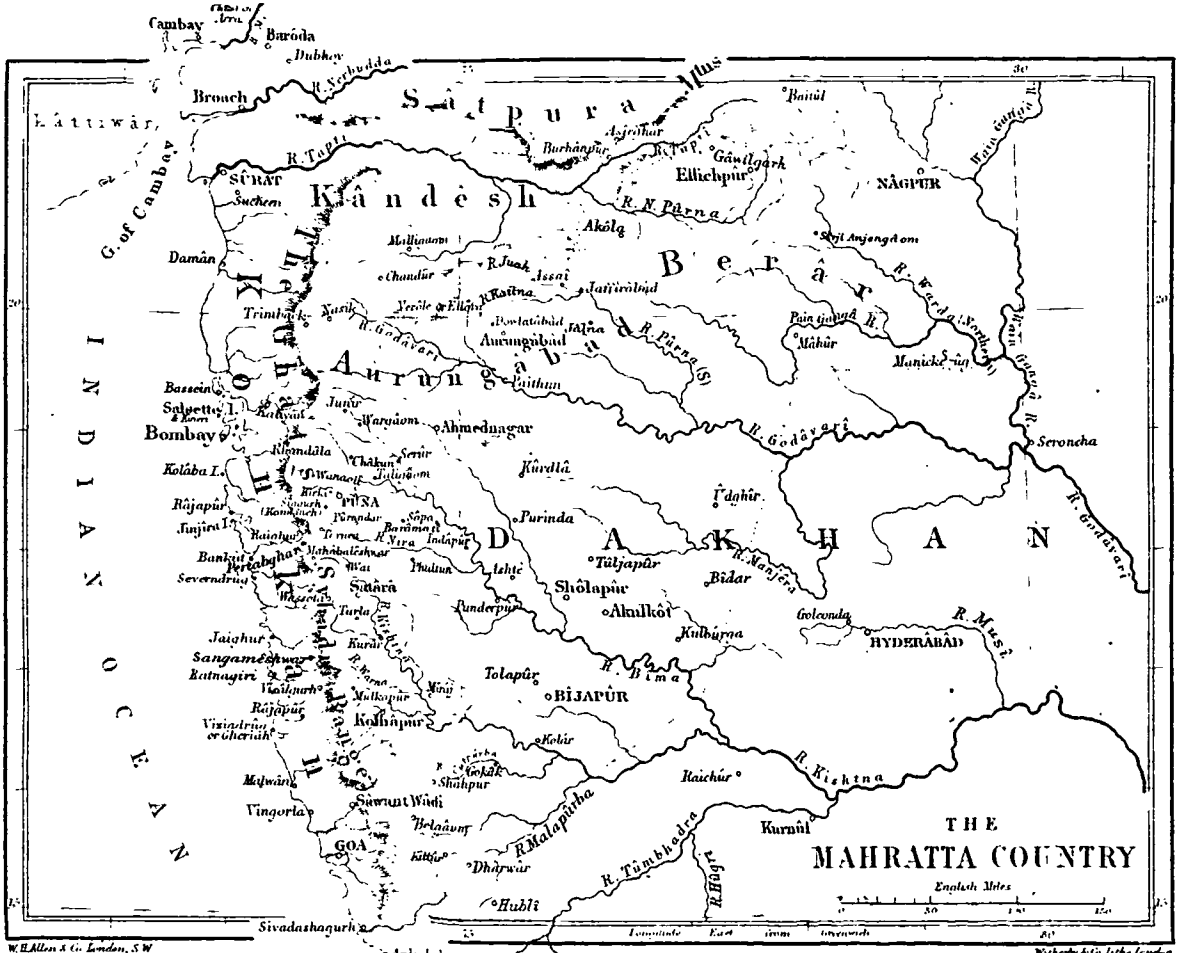
IV. From 1761 to 1774, and the FIRST MAHRATTA WAR (with the English), 1774 to 1782: PÂNIPAT to SALBÂÎ;

Marquis Wellesley.

V. From 1782 to 1803, and the SECOND and THIRD MAHRATTA (*English*) WARS, 1803, 1804, and 1805: BASSEIN and ASSAÎ; and the

Lord Hastings.

VI. Minor events subsequent to A.D. 1805, including the FOURTH MAHRATTA WAR.


THE
MAHRATTA COUNTRY
English Miles
Cambay
Baroda
Dubhoy
R. Serbudda
Broach
Kattiwar
G. of Cambay
SÛRAT
Suchem
Damân
Sâtpura
Mts
Burhânpur
Asirghar
R. Tapti
Gâwilgarh
Ellichpur
NÂGPUR
Baitûl
Kândesh
R. N. Pûrna
Akôla
Malligaom
Chandûr
R. Juak
Assai
Jaffirâbâd
Berâr
Sirji Anjengâom
R. Warda (Northern)
Trimbak
Nasik
R. Godâvari
Aurungâbâd
Jalna
R. Pûrna (S)
Mâhûr
Manickerûg
Bassein
Salsette I.
Bombay
Junir
Wargâom
Ahmednagar
R. Godâvarî
Seroncha
Kolâba I.
Rhamdâla
Chakun
Serûr
Kûrdlâ
Râjapûr
Jinjira I.
PÛNA
Purinda
Ûdghîr
DAKHAN
Bankut
Severndrug
Satârâ
Phultun
Tûljapûr
Bîdar
R. Manjêra
Shôlapûr
Akulkôt
Kulbûrga
Golconda
HYDERÂBÂD
R. Musî
Jaighur
Sangamêshwar
Ratnagiri
Tolapûr
R. Bîma
BÎJAPÛR
Râjapûr
Kolhâpur
Kolâr
Malwân
Vingorla
Sâwant Wâdi
Gokâk
Shâhpur
Raichûr
R. Kishtna
Kurnûl
R. Malapûrba
R. Tûmbhadra
R. Hugri
GOA
Dhârwâr
Hublî
Sivadashagurh
INDIAN OCEAN
Longitude East from Greenwich
W. H. Allen & Co. London, S.W.
Witherby & Co. Litho. London

PART I.—MAHRATTA HISTORY TO THE DEATH OF SIVAJÎ, 1680.

§ 2. The country of the Mahrattas, or Mahârâshtra (the great province), is bounded on the north by the Sâtpura mountains; and extends from about Sûrat on the west to the Wain Gangâ, east of Nâgpur. The boundary follows that river till it falls into the Warda (Varada), on to Mânickdurg, thence to Mâhûr, and thence to Goa. On the west it is bounded by the ocean. (See map.) It is watered by the Narbaddah, the Taptî, the Godâvarî, the Bîma, the Kishtna, and their many tributaries. The famous Mahratta horses are bred on the banks of these rivers.

The Mahratta country. (Properly Marâṭha.) (Introd. § 34.) Boundaries. Rivers. Horses.

§ 3. There is scarcely any authentic history of the ancient Mahratta country. (Ch. iv. § 14, 15.)

Ancient history.

§ 4. The Konkan is the country from the Western Ghâts, called there the Syhadrî range, to the sea; and from Sivadashagûrh to the Taptî. It is an uneven country, with high hills and thick jungles, having only narrow defiles reaching up to the table-lands. It varies in breadth from twenty-five to fifty miles. Some of the mountain valleys on the eastern edge of the Konkan are called Mâwals. From these came the hardy Mâwalîs employed by Sivajî.

The Konkan and its inhabitants. Mâwals.

In the north are found Bhîls, Kolis, and other wild tribes. The Râmosîs, who are often the watchmen in the Mahratta country, are a numerous tribe on the table-land. A Mahratta village is called a *Gâom* (corrupted from the Sansk. *Grâma*). The head of a village is called a Patêll. In the Sâthpurâ range are found the Gonds and Kirkus.

Wild tribes. Gâom. Patêll.

§ 5. The character of the Mahrattas has in all periods been much affected by a peculiarity in the physical geography of their country. Huge masses of basaltic rock, protruded through the alluvial soil in every part of the country, rise to the height of from forty to four hundred feet. These with little labour are capable of being made into fortresses, very difficult of access and of great strength. These were the Mahratta hill-forts.

Hill-forts.

§ 6. The invasion of the Dakhan by Allâ the Sanguinary (ch. iv. § 16) brought the Mahrattas into connection with the Musalmâns, against whom they

A.D. 1294. Constant warfare between Mahrattas and Muhammadans.

continued to contend for centuries with varying success, till English arms and the "subsidiary system" gave peace to the land. (Ch. x. § 36.)

§ 7. There were many very respectable and wealthy chiefs among the Mahrattas in the times of the early Muhammadan kings; and multitudes of Mahrattas were in their armies, and even in civil employments under them.

The Bhonslé family.

One family especially, of the name of *Bhonslé*, which traced its descent from the royal house of Oudipûr, had its principal residence at Verôle (or Ellôra), near Daulatâbâd. Of that family was the renowned SIVAJÎ MAHÂ RÂJA (Table, § 27.) His grandfather was Malojî, commander of a party of horse in the service of Murteza Nizâm Shâh I. (A.D. 1577.)

Rájpûts by descent.

Sivaji's grandfather. (Ch. iv. § 23.)

Their tutelary divinity was the goddess Bhavânî of Tûljapûr.

Shâhji.

Malojî's eldest son was Shâhjî. He was high in favour in the Ahmadnagar court. It was told him by the goddess, according to Mahratta legends, that one of his family should become king, restore Hindû customs, protect Brâhmans and kine, and be the first of a line of twenty-seven rulers of the land.

Supposed prediction of Sivaji's greatness.

Shâhjî fought under Malik Ambar, and in the wars of the Bijapûr Government against Muhâbat Khân. [Ch. iii. § 7 (5).]

Shâhjî in Bijapûr, 1637.

In 1637, when the Ahmadnagar dynasty was finally destroyed, Shâhjî sought employment under the Bijapûr Government, of which Muhammad Adil Shâh was then the king. [Ch. iv. § 24; ch. iii. § 8 (4).]

Shâhjî in the Dakhan.

He was then sent into the Carnatic, where a jâghîr, consisting of the districts of Kolâr, Bangalore, Ooskotta, Bâlapûr, and Sîra, was given him; and never returned to reside in the Dakhan.

In 1661 he had ravaged the country as far as to Tanjore.

See the map of Mysôr. (Ch. xii. § 1.)

NOTE.—1. KOLÂR (Colar), town and district; forty miles E.N.E. from Bangalore. This was the birthplace of Hyder.
2. BANGALORE, seventy miles N.E. from Seringapatam.
3. OOSKOTTA, sixteen miles N.E. from Bangalore.
4. SIRA, ninety-two miles N. by E. from Seringapatam.
5. BÂLAPÛR, twenty-three miles N. from Bangalore.

§ 8. He had three legitimate sons: Sambajî, who was with him in the south; SIVAJÎ, who lived chiefly with his mother Jijî Bâî; and Venkajî, sometimes called Ekojî, who was his son by a second wife, and who seems to have occupied Tanjore in 1675. Shâhji's sons. See table, p. 172.

The history is now chiefly concerned with Sivajî, *who may be considered the founder of the Mahratta power, or rather the restorer of that Hindû kingdom which had existed in Déoghar before Allâ the Sanguinary invaded the Dakhan.* (Ch. iv. § 15, &c.) (Ch. ii. § 31, &c.)

§ 9. Sivajî was born at the fort of Sewnerî, near Junîr, in A.D. 1627, the year in which Jehângîr died. (Compare p. 107.) Sivajî's birth and early training, 1627-1646. (48 miles N. of Pûna.)

When his father left for the Carnatic, he remained under the guardianship of a Brâhman manager, called Dadajî Konedêo, a faithful and intelligent servant of Shâhjî. The jâghîr under his management, which was the foundation of Sivajî's fortunes, consisted of twenty-two villages south of Satârâ, the districts of Indâpûr and Barâmatî, and the Mâwals near Pûna. His guardian. His hereditary jâghir.

In 1636 Prince Aurungzîb was temporarily appointed Viceroy of the Dakhan for the first time. (Ch. iii. p. 109.) Aurungzîb in the Dakhan, 1636.

§ 10. Sivajî was early taught all that it was considered necessary for a Mahratta chieftain to know; but he never could write his name. He was brought up a zealous Hindû, and was thoroughly versed in the mythological and legendary stories current among his countrymen. These had taken the greater hold on his heart and imagination from the fact of their being his only study. Early training of Sivajî.

His hatred of Muhammadans prepared him for that life of intense hostility to Aurungzîb which he led. They were the typical champions of their respective systems. Hostility to Muhammadans.

Tornea, 1646. (Battle of Marston Moor, 1644. Comp. Cromwell's rise!) Treasure.

§ 11. From his boyhood he seems to have planned his after career; and he was but nineteen years of age when he seized the hill-fort of Tornea, twenty miles S.W. of Pûna.

He found a large treasure in the ruins near this fort; and this he spent in building another, which he called Raighur. These forts are both of them on majestic heights.

"The mountain rat."

Born in a fort, his greatness arose from his forts; and in a fort he died. From this circumstance Aurungzîb contemptuously called him "a mountain rat."

The eagle is his more fitting type; and if he had not much magnanimity, he soon showed that he had, at least, an eagle's keenness of eye-sight and sharpness of claw.

Sivaji's rapid progress. 1647. His contests with Bijapûr.

§ 12. His advance was now rapid. He obtained possession of Kondaneh (Singhur), Sôpa, and Pûrandar, meanwhile trying every art to deceive the Bîjapûr authorities, who probably thought they could crush him whenever they pleased.

Muhammad Âdil Shâh was still King of Bîjapûr. [Ch. iv. § 23.]

Shâhji, Sivaji, and the King of Bijapûr.

The suspicions of the Bîjapûr king being at length roused by the acts of open violence to which Sivajî proceeded, he sent for Shâhjî, built him up in a stone dungeon, leaving only a small aperture; which was to be closed, if, within a fixed time, his son Sivajî did not surrender himself.

Sivaji's intrigues with Shâh Jehân. (Comp. pp. 109, 110.)

Sivajî at once boldly entered into correspondence with Shâh Jehân, who by his artful representations was induced to admit Shâhjî into the imperial service, and to give Sivajî himself the command of 5,000 horse.

By the emperor's intercession Shâhjî's life was thus saved; but he remained a prisoner for four years.

The murder of Afzal Khân.

CH. V. § 13, 14. A.D. 1651, 59.

§ 13. Sivajî evaded the fulfilment of his promise to enter the imperial service; and, in A.D. 1651, actually carried his marauding expeditions into the Mogul territory.

Sivaji avails himself of the disturbed state of affairs, 1651.

In 1652, Prince Aurungzîb for the second time became Viceroy of the Dakhan, and invaded the territories of Golconda and Bijapûr. (Ch. iii.)

[p. 110.]

Sivajî now attacked both parties by turns; and availed himself of every turn of fortune to increase his power and possessions.

[Co. ch. iv. § 22.]

In 1656, Muhammad Âdil Shâh died, and was succeeded by his son, Alî Adil Shâh, a youth of nineteen.

(Ch. iv. § 23.)

§ 14. In 1659, the Bîjapûr Government made an attempt to crush Sivajî, which he rendered unsuccessful by an act of treachery celebrated in Mahratta history: *the murder of Afzal Khân.*

The treacherous murder of Afzal Khân, 1659.

This officer allowed himself to be enticed by Sivajî's pretended humility into the wild country in the neighbourhood of Pertabghar, where Sivajî then was. By bribing Afzal Khân's Brâhman messenger, he induced that unfortunate and unwary officer to consent to a conference below the fort, where the jungle had been purposely cut away.

(Pertabghar, or Pratâpghur, is 41 miles S.S.W. from Pûna.)

Sivajî's adherents were disposed in the neighbouring thickets, and everything arranged for the effectual crushing of the Bîjapûr troops. At the appointed time Afzal Khân, armed only with a sword, advanced in his palanquin to the interview, with only one armed attendant.

Sivajî had prepared himself for this morning's work by seeking his mother's blessing, performing his religious duties with scrupulous accuracy; and had put on complete armour beneath his cotton dress. In his right sleeve was a dagger called the *Bichwa,* or scorpion, from its shape. On the finger of his left hand was a

Wagnakh (=*tiger's claw*), a steel instrument with three crooked blades, resembling the claw of a tiger. He now, with studied dissimulation, advanced, manifesting every sign of timidity; and, to encourage him, Afzal Khân dismissed his one attendant.

They met, and in the midst of the customary embrace Sivajî struck the *wâgnakh* into the bowels of Afzal Khân, who was despatched after a short resistance.

The signal for the onset of the ambushed Mahrattas was now given, and the Bîjapûr troops were surrounded and cut up. Sivajî, as was his wont, treated the prisoners with humanity. Afzal's head was buried under a tower in the fort of Pertabghar.

Sivaji's reputation for cunning and daring.

The decisive advantage gained by this act of detestable treachery greatly benefited Sivajî's position, and established his reputation among a people to whom cunning was the highest excellence.

Sivaji in 1662.

§ 15. Without giving details of his campaigns, we may briefly state that, by the end of 1662, he possessed the Konkan from Kalyân to Goa, about 250 miles of coast; and the table-land above, from the Bîma to the Warda, about 160 miles in length, and in breadth at its widest, from Sôpa to Jinjîra, about 100 miles. (See map.) Through the intervention of his father he now was at peace with Alî Âdil Shâh of Bijapûr. He took up his abode at this period in Raighur.

(The S. Warda, rising near Honâwar, and falling into the Tûmbhadra near Savanûr.)

Aurungzîb was lying sick at this time. (Ch. iii. § 9 [5].)
Bombay had just been ceded to the English. (Ch. vii. § 6.)
The Portuguese had ceased to be feared or respected. (Ch. vi. § 20.)

His affair with Shayista Khân, 1662.
(He was Viceroy of Bengâl in 1663.)

§ 16. Shayista Khân (ch. iii.) was now Viceroy of the Dakhan; and Sivajî, at peace with Bijapûr, attacked the Moguls, and ravaged the country to the gates of Aurungâbâd, where the imperial viceroy lived.

Shayista Khân marched southward, and, after storming Châkan, took up his abode in Pûna, in the very house where Sivajî was brought up.

The surprise of Shayista Khân.

Sivajî now performed one of those exploits, which more than anything else, make his name famous among his countrymen. With a party of his men at nightfall he slipped unperceived into the city, mingling with a marriage procession; passed through the out-offices of the well-known house, and almost surprised the Khân in his bed-chamber. The Mogul escaped with the loss of two fingers; but his son and attendants were slain. Sivajî made off, and ascended his hill-fort of Singhur (twelve miles distant) amidst a blaze of torches. If this adventure did nothing else, it inspirited his men, and taught them to despise the Moguls.

The sack of Sûrat, 1664. Jan. 5.

§ 17. His next exploit was the sack of Sûrat. (Ch. vii. § 6.) This was particularly offensive to Aurungzîb, as pilgrims to Mecca embarked from Sûrat, hence called Bâb-ul-Makkah, *the gate of Mecca.*

Death of Shâhjî, 1664. (§ 7; 12; 27.)

In 1664 Shâhjî died. He was possessed, at his death, of Arnî, Porto Novo, and Tanjore, in addition to his jâghîr. This was the foundation of the Tanjore kingdom.

Sivaji's naval affairs.

Sivajî at this time assumed the title of Râja, and began to coin money. He also collected a fleet of eighty-five ships, sailed down the coast, sacked Barcelôr, and plundered the adjacent country. He even attacked some vessels conveying pilgrims to Mecca, and thus doubly roused the indignation of Aurungzîb, ever the champion of the Muhammadan faith.

§ 18. The emperor now sent Râja Jey Sing (of Jeypûr) and Dilîr Khân into the Dakhan to chastise Sivajî, and to reduce Bijapûr. Jeswant Sing and Prince Moazzim returned to Delhi. (Ch. iii. § 9.)

Sivaji's submission.

Sivajî after a while submitted, and surrendered twenty of his forts, retaining twelve as a jâghîr from the emperor. His son Sambajî was to become a commander of 5,000 horse in the Mogul army. He was also to have certain assignments of revenues, called chout (or *the fourth*), and Surdêshmukhî (or 10 per cent.), on some districts of Bîjapûr. This was the ground for the ill-defined claims of the Mahrattas in after times to plunder and extort monies from the inhabitants of every province of the empire.

Foundation of Mahratta claims.

Sivajî then joined the imperial army, and so distinguished himself in the invasion of Bîjapûr, that the emperor wrote him a complimentary letter, and invited him to Delhi.

Sivaji in Delhi, 1666.

§ 19. Sivajî accordingly, in March 1666, with his son, set out for the court.

Aurungzîb received him haughtily; and Sivajî, finding himself slighted, and, in fact, a prisoner, contrived to escape with Sambajî, and reached Raighur in December. (Shâh Jehân died that month. Ch. iii. § 9.)

His escape.

Bad policy.

Thus did the emperor foolishly throw away the chance of converting an enemy into a firm friend and vassal.

Here was a great opportunity mismanaged.

§ 20. Jey Sing was unsuccessful in his attacks on Bîjapûr, and was recalled. Sultân Moazzim was then made Viceroy of the Dakhan, and Jeswant Sing accompanied him. Dilîr Khân remained also as a check on both. Such was Aurungzîb's jealous policy.

Sivaji again independent.

Sivajî now openly, for a time, resumed his old attitude of defiance; but soon, through the intercession of Jeswant Sing, obtained most favourable terms from Aurungzîb; and in fact was left in perfect independence; though, doubtless, this was done with the intention of

crushing him, when an opportunity should present itself.

In 1668 he compelled the courts of Bîjapûr and Golconda to pay him tribute.

He employed the years 1668 and 1669 in revising and completing the internal arrangements of his kingdom.

The Mahratta *kingdom* founded.

§ 21. At this time Sultân Moazzim and Jeswant Sing were regularly receiving money from Sivajî. This coming to the knowledge of Aurungzîb, he wrote to threaten both with punishment, if the "mountain rat" were not caught. Sivajî, now roused into activity, began to seize upon the forts around. Especially is the storming of Raighur famous, in which affair Tannajî Malusraî, one of his most famous warriors, was slain. He also a second time sacked Sûrat; but the English again successfully defended their factory.

The storming of Raighur.

The second sack of Sûrat, October 1670.

§ 22. In 1674 Sivajî was solemnly enthroned at Raighur. He was then weighed against gold; and the sum, 16,000 pagodas (about ten stone), given to Brâhmans. From that time he assumed the most high-sounding titles, and maintained more than royal dignity in all his actions.

Sivajî enthroned, 1674.

Sivajî a Râja.

At the time of his enthronement, Mr. Henry Oxenden (Governor of Bombay, 1707–1709), was at Raighur, negotiating a treaty between Sivajî and the English.

[Milton died, 1674.]

The former agreed, among other things, to give compensation to the English for their losses at Râjapûr.

§ 23. In 1676 Sivajî undertook his celebrated expedition into the Carnatic. His object was to enforce his claims to half the possessions of Shâhjî.

His Carnatic expedition, 1676.

In his way he had an interview with Kutb Shâh of Golconda, when a treaty was negotiated between them.

His enthusiasm.

An instance of the immense hold which his ancestral religion had on his mind occurred on this march. He visited a temple of Bhavânî on his route, and was wrought up to such a pitch of enthusiasm by the penances and ceremonies he performed there, that he drew his sword to sacrifice himself before the image of the goddess. He was prevented from consummating the sacrifice, and his future victories and glories were announced by the priests of the temple.

Sivaji's conquests in the South, 1677.

§ 24. He soon made himself master of the whole of his father's jâghîr; took Gingî, Vellore, and many places in the neighbourhood; and came to an agreement with his half-brother Venkajî, or Êkojî, then in

In Tanjore, 1677.

Tanjore, by which a portion of the revenues of the whole territory in his possession was to be paid him annually.

On his return he plundered Jâlna, and was attacked by Dilîr Khân's orders on his way to Raighur with the plunder; but succeeded in beating off his assailants and making his escape. (Ch. vii. § 7.)

His son, Sambaji.

§ 25. Sivajî had now a great affliction in the bad conduct of his son, Sambajî; who, being put under restraint for outrageous conduct, actually went over to Dilîr Khân, who strove to use him in the furtherance of intrigues against his father; but, on the emperor ordering that he should be sent a prisoner to Delhi, the Mogul general connived at his escape.

His death, 1680.

§ 26. Sivajî's last days drew near. He died at Raighur of fever, brought on by a swelling in his knee-joint, on the 5th April 1680.

His character.

To Sivajî must be conceded a high place among the men who have possessed great qualities, have had a mighty power to influence their fellow-men, and have

therefore accomplished great things; and whose name and fame will endure.

With him the dynasty may be said to have fallen. None of his descendants had any vigour or ability. His descendants feeble.

Mahratta greatness depended henceforth on the feudatory chieftains and officers of the kingdom.

PART II.—Mahratta history from the death of Sivaji (1680) to the liberation of Sâhu (1708).

§ 27. Sambajî succeeded to the throne, after overcoming a faction that wished to supersede him, and to set up Râja Râm, a younger son of Sivajî. (See table, p. 172.). The second Râja, Sambaji, 1680–1689.

He began his reign under most unfavourable circumstances. His father had foreseen the troubles that his unrestrained passions would bring on his people. He first of all put to death Soyera Bâî, the mother of Râja Râm; and by this and other executions gained a character for relentless cruelty. His cruelty.

§ 28. As he had been a fugitive from his father, so now Muhammad Akbar, the fourth son of Aurungzîb, fled to him for refuge.

This prince, after engaging in several fruitless attempts to overthrow his father's power; disgusted at Sambajî's character and conduct, quitted his protection in 1688; and passed over to Persia, where he died in 1706. (Ch. iii. § 9.) Prince Akbar.

§ 29. Sambajî meanwhile besieged Jinjîra, but in vain; and was engaged in petty hostilities with the Aurungzib's great expedition.

§ 27. TABLE OF MAHRATTA RÂJAS. Chap. v.

Shâhjî. § 7.

I. Sivajî (A.D. 1627–1680). § 9–26.

II. Sambajî. Killed 1689. § 32.
III. Sivajî II. or Sâhu. Imprisoned 1690. Released 1708. Died 1748. § 38–59.

Râja Râm = Tîra Bâî. § 34. Regent 1690. Regent 1700. Died 1700.

Sivajî. Died 1712.
IV. Râm Râja. § 59. Died 1777.
V. Sâhu II. § 94.
VI. Pratâp S. § 164. Deposed 1839. Died 1847.
VII. Appâ S. 1848. Lapsed.

Sambajî. § 47. Râja 1712. Founder of the Kolhâpûr State, 1729. Died 1760.
His adopted son Sivajî succeeded. Died 1813.
Abâ Sahêb. Died 1822.
Bawâ S. Died 1837.
Sivajî, or Babâ Saheb.

THE MAHRATTAS IN TANJORE.

Shâhjî *perhaps* visited Tanjore in 1661.

I. Êkojî, or Venkajî (half-brother of Sivajî) 1675. First overthrew the native Râjas of Tanjore.

II. Sivajî.
III. Serfojî.
Tôkajî.

Sâhujî. Ch. vii. § 7 (17).
Babâ Saheb.
Pratâp Sing (illegitimate). Usurped the throne, 1741.

Tôljajî (died in 1787).
Amîr Sing, deposed in 1799.

Serfojî (1799–1832).

Sivajî, died in 1855.

Note.—The chief dates are 1675, 1773, 1800, 1855 (comp. ch. x. § 44).

The princess.

Portuguese and English, when tidings reached him of the design of Aurungzîb to undertake the subjugation of the entire Dakhan. (Ch. iii. § 9.)

Sultân Moazzim was now sent as Viceroy to Aurungâbâd for the fourth time; and the emperor soon followed (A.D. 1683), and took up his abode at Burhânpûr, spending the remaining twenty-four years of his life in this fruitless struggle.

Aurungzîb in Burhânpûr, 1683.

§ 30. Sambajî's wars with the Portuguese were disgraced by the barbarities committed by both parties: neither gained any decided success (ch. vi. § 20); nor are these conflicts worthy of permanent record.

Wars with the Portuguese.

§ 31. Sambajî's minister was a Brâhman called Kulusha, who was learned; but totally unfit to govern a great state. The Râja himself was brave, but imprudent; and, when not in the field, gave himself up to the most degrading vices.

The Brâhman Kulusha.

§ 32. During all Aurungzîb's victorious course from 1683 to 1689, Sambajî was most unaccountably in a state of nearly total inactivity.

Sambaji's debauchery.

He was finally surprised in a state of intoxication at Sangamêshwar, with Kulusha.

His capture.

Sambajî was offered his life on the condition that he should become a Musalmân. "Tell the emperor," said he, "that if he will give me his daughter, I will do so." He added words of bitter insult to Muhammad.

The enraged emperor ordered a red-hot iron to be passed over his eyes, his tongue to be torn out, and his head to be cut off. He and his minister suffered at Tolapûr, in August 1689.

His death, 1689.

The murder of Sambaji and of Kulusha, 1689.

His death aroused the Mahrattas to form schemes of vengeance, but did not daunt them.

The third Mahratta Râja, Sâhu.

His names.

§ 33. Sambajî left a son six years old, whose name was Sivajî; and who is known in history by the name of Sâhu (Shâo), meaning thief, a nickname given to him by the emperor. This boy and his mother were taken prisoners soon after. He remained a prisoner till after Aurungzîb's death. He is considered the third Râja of the Mahrattas.

The regent Râja Râm.

§ 34. Meanwhile Râja Râm, the half-brother of Sambajî, was declared regent; and making a rapid flight, established his court at Gingî. Thither the emperor first despatched Zulfikâr Khân and Dâûd Khân Pannî [Ch. iii. § 9 (12)], and afterwards the Prince Kâm Baksh; but owing to various intrigues, the place was not taken till 1698; and then Râja Râm was allowed to escape and take refuge in Visâlgurh.

Satârâ taken, 1700.

In 1700 the emperor in person took Satârâ; and in the same year Râja Râm died.

Târa Bâi.

His widow, Târa Bâî, assumed the regency; and this desultory strife between the Moguls and Mahrattas was kept up till the emperor's death.

The splendour of the Moguls.

§ 35. The contrast between the splendour of the Mogul camp and army and the rude and irregular hordes of the Mahrattas at this time is very striking. The emperor's army consisted chiefly of a vast assemblage of choice cavalry, men of imposing stature and appearance, splendidly armed and mounted, and chosen from every province of the empire. He had also large bodies of well-disciplined infantry, and his artillery was served by European gunners. Vast numbers of elephants attended the army. The accounts given of the pomp and luxury of the camp are well-nigh incredible. Enormous tents reproduced all, and more than all, the splendours of the palaces of Âgra and Delhi. In his encampment the emperor was surrounded

The Mogul encampment.

Its prodigious luxury.

with greater magnificence than probably any potentate of any age or nation. And it is still more astonishing to learn, that an exact duplicate of all the encampment was provided; so that when the army was on its march, the emperor and his court found at each halting-place the whole apparatus of luxury and state.

The expense must have been enormous, and exhausted the revenues of Hindûstân. Meanwhile the sight of all this display was intended to strike awe into the minds of the various nations of the Dakhan. But no Akbar was in the Mogul camp! The expense.

§ 36. To the thoughtful student the rude encampment of the Mahrattas presents a more interesting subject of contemplation; for, in the long run, these were the conquerors. There, a few thousand irregular horsemen assembled in some wild region, with little provision and no superfluities of any kind. They slept with their horses' bridles in their hands, swords by their sides, and their spears stuck into the ground by their horses' heads, with a blanket or horse-cloth extended on the points of their spears for a shade. Their one idea was plunder; and the caravans with supplies and treasure for the Mogul armies, which were always on their way from Hindûstân, afforded them rich and constant booty. The prolonged contest to them was exciting, instructive, and gainful. The Mahratta encampment. Mahratta manners.

§ 37. It was thus that the last years of Aurungzîb were passed. Zulfikâr Khân, however, distinguished himself greatly amidst the sloth, corruption, and vice of the Mogul armies. Aurungzîb's last years. The one real man.

The emperor was old. He had trusted none, and was beloved by none. His sons were prepared, according to precedent, to contest the throne upon his death. Everywhere uncertainty, distrust, and confusion pre- Degeneracy of the Moguls.

vailed; yet the emperor persisted to the last in his futile endeavours to reduce the Mahrattas. Fort after fort was stormed; but the depredations of the Mahrattas, whom patriotism and the lust of plunder kept on the alert, multiplied and extended in every direction. Meanwhile the Moguls were degenerating fast; and it became daily more evident that the death of the emperor would be the signal for a general breaking up of the decayed empire. On one occasion, in the year before Aurungzîb's death, his armies sustained a complete defeat; and the aged emperor himself narrowly escaped being taken prisoner. He now returned to Ahmadnagar, where he died, February 21, 1707. (Ch. iii. § 9.)

His death, 1707.

His failure.

Whatever judgment may be passed upon Aurungzîb in other respects, it must be acknowledged that he signally failed in his schemes against the Mahrattas.

PART III.—Mahratta History from the Liberation of Sâhu, 1708, to the (Second) Battle of Pânipat (1761).

Sâhu in Delhi.

He is kindly treated.

The Swords. [Chick Dêo Râj in Mysore, ch. xii. § 8.]

§ 38. Sâhu, the grandson of Sivajî, was still a prisoner. Aurungzîb had behaved to him with unvarying kindness; had made arrangements for his marriage with two Mahratta heiresses; and had restored to him his grandfather's famous sword Bhavânî, with that of the murdered Afzal Khân. There was even an intention at one time of releasing him, and of granting to the Mahrattas a percentage on the revenues of the districts they occupied, on the condition that they should maintain tranquillity therein, and remain faithful to the Imperial Government.

Sâhu's release, 1708. His reception in the South.

§ 39. Azam Shâh, on the death of his father, carried out this plan; and, in 1708, Sâhu obtained possession of Satârâ, though Târa Bâî and her son Sivajî affected to consider him an impostor, and strove to maintain their position, till the death of the latter in 1712.

The events of 1712. Death of Shâh Âlam I. and of Zulfikâr Khân. Nizâm-ul-Mulk in the Dakhan.

This year also witnessed the death of Shâh Âlam I. (ch. iii. § 10, 11); which was soon followed by the murder of the renowned Zulfikâr Khân, and of his nominee Jehândâr Shâh. At this time, also, the famous Nizâm-ul-Mulk was first appointed Viceroy of the Dakhan. (Ch. iii. § 12.)

The first Peshwâ, 1712. Bâlâji Vishwanâth.

§ 40. Sâhu's power was consolidated by the wise measures of his able minister, BÂLÂJÎ VISHWANÂTH, an able Brâhman, who about this time (1712) was received into his service, and may be considered the second founder of the Mahratta confederation. Bâlâjî was first sent on an expedition against *Angria*, who had made himself master of the coast south of Bombay, and succeeded in bringing him to terms. This was so acceptable to Sâhu that Bâlâjî Vishwanâth was, on his return, made PESHWÂ, or prime-minister; an office which had carried little authority with it before his time, but which his ability soon made paramount, and which he was able to make hereditary in his family. From this time the Brâhman Peshwâs are the real heads of the Mahratta confederation; the Râjas, the descendants of the great Sivajî, being merely nominal rulers, living in splendour, as state prisoners, in Satârâ.

The Peshwâs. (Comp. table, § 158.)

Bâlâjî Vishwanâth, the Peshwâ, acted the part in India (1714–1720) towards the descendants of the great Sivajî, that Pepin, the mayor of the palace, performed in France, in 752, towards the descendants of the great Clovis.

Vishwanâth was, in fact, the fifth Peshwâ; but he is commonly reckoned the first, from the greater importance which he gave to the office.

Sâhu's character.

§ 41. Sâhu himself was in manners a Muhammadan, indolent and luxurious, delegating his power to his

Peshwâ, and openly acknowledging himself a vassal of Delhi; yet under Bâlâjî the Mahratta power was at this time extended and consolidated in a most remarkable manner.

The weakness of the Mogul emperor, Muhammad Shâh, greatly facilitated the progress of the Mahrattas.

The Mahrattas in Delhi, 1717, 1718.

§ 42. Negotiations between Sâhu and the court of Delhi were set on foot, in consequence of which, in 1718, Bâlâjî in command of a large contingent was sent to Delhi, to assist the Seiads. This was the beginning of Mahratta influence in Delhi, with which, till 1803, they were henceforth to be so closely connected. At this time the Seiad Hussain, by treaty, ceded to them the *Chouth*, or fourth part of the revenues of the Dakhan, the *Surdêshmuki*, or additional ten per cent., and the *Swarâjî*, or absolute control of the countries about Pûna and Satârâ.

(Chap. iii. § 12.)

(In *Waî* the Pandus are said to have lived in exile. Ch. i. § 7.)

These included Pûna, Sôpa, Indâpûr, Waî, the Mâwals, Satârâ, Kurâr, Kuttna, Mân, Phultûn, Mulkapûr, Tarlâ, Panâla, Azerah, Junîr, Kolhâpûr, and a great part of the Konkan. From this time the Mahrattas seem to be ubiquitous.

1718.

This treaty was the real commencement of Mahratta supremacy. It gave them revenues, and a claim upon every Southern state, affording a plausible pretext for their marauding expeditions.

Bâlâjî's death, 1720.

§ 43. An elaborate revenue system was now devised by Bâlâjî, by which, while the Mahrattas extended and enforced their exactions, the Brâhman influence more and more predominated.

Bâlâjî did not long survive his return from Delhi. He died in October 1720, soon after the battle of Shâhpûr, which destroyed the power of the Seiads, and established Muhammad Shâh upon the throne of the decaying empire. (Ch. iii. § 15.)

The second Peshwâ, 1720–1740. Commonly called the Nânâ.

§ 44. Bâjî Râo (I.), the eldest son of Bâlâjî, succeeded to the title of Peshwâ. He is generally styled the SECOND PESHWÂ, and retained the office till his death in 1740.

§ 45. About the year 1724, several Mahratta officers, who afterwards became independent leaders, or founders of states, rose to distinction. The first of these was Mulhârjî Holkâr, a cavalry soldier of the Sûdra caste; to whom Indôr was assigned in 1733. The second was Rânojî Sindia, a descendant of an old Râjpût family, who was at one time the Peshwâ's slipper-bearer, and was promoted for his fidelity in this humble position. The third was Udajî Pûar (ch. i. § 9), an enterprising warrior of Mâlwâ. The fourth was Pilajî Gaekwâr (or cowherd), son of Damajî, who by valour and treachery rose to eminence.

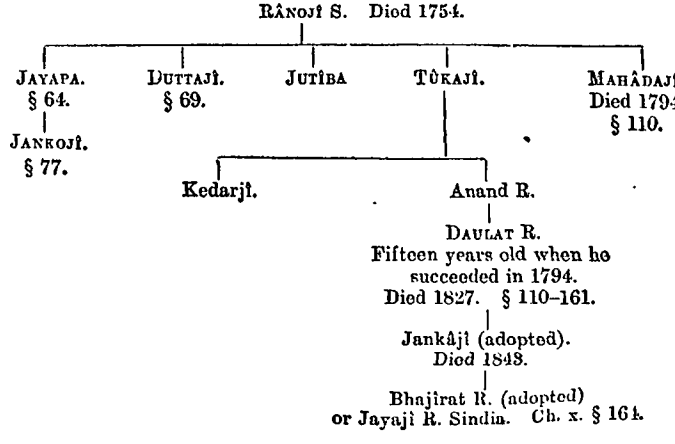
The rise of various Mahratta leaders. (Comp. § 75.)

(Comp. § 77.)

Bâji Râo's great chieftains, 1724.

§ 45.* THE SINDIA FAMILY. Chap. v. § 45.

A SÛDRA FAMILY.


Rânojî S. Died 1754.
Jayapa. § 64.
Duttajî. § 69.
Jutîba
Tûkajî.
Mahâdajî. Died 1794. § 110.
Jankojî. § 77.
Kedarjî.
Anand R.
Daulat R. Fifteen years old when he succeeded in 1794. Died 1827. § 110–161.
Jankâjî (adopted). Died 1843.
Bhajirat R. (adopted) or Jayajî R. Sindia. Ch. x. § 164.

The fifth was FATIH SING BHONSLÉ.

The chiefs of Akulkôt.

When Sâhu was fighting with Târa Bâi in 1708, a woman rushed in and threw her child at his feet, crying out that she dedicated him to the Râja's service. This child was called *Fatih*, in commemoration of the victory. He was made *Râja* of *Akulkôt*. (Comp. ch. iii. § 15.)

The sixth was PARSAJÎ BHONSLÉ, who was chiefly employed in Berâr.

Bâjî Râo's plans.

§ 46. Bâjî Râo's great design was to extend Mahratta power in Hindûstân. In a debate before SÂHU, he said, "Now is our time to drive strangers from the land of the Hindûs, and to acquire immortal renown. By directing our efforts to Hindûstân, the Mahratta flag in your reign shall fly from the Kishtna to the Attock. Let us strike at the trunk of the withering tree (the Mogul empire), and the branches must fall of themselves!"

Universal Mahratta dominion!

Sâhu and his Peshwâ.

Sâhu, roused for the moment to the display of something like the spirit of his grandfather, replied, "You shall plant my flag on the Himâlaya. You are the noble son of a worthy father."

1727.

In the year 1727, a long and desultory war between Nizâm-ul-Mulk and Bâjî Râo began, the results of which on the whole were favourable to the Mahrattas. (Ch. iii. § 15.) The young Peshwâ and the old Nizâm were now the principal actors on the stage.

The Kolhâpûr State, 1730. (§ 166.)

§ 47. The founding of the Kolhâpûr Râj was the first great schism among the Mahrattas. *Sambajî*, the son of Râjis Râi, the younger wife of Râja Râm, was the rival of Sâhu, and Nizâm-ul-Mulk strove to foment the rivalries between the courts of Kolhâpûr and Satârâ, but the former never attained any great influence. It comprised the Konkan from Salsi to Ankolah. By treaty in 1731, the independence of Kolhâpûr was acknowledged by Sâhu.

(Comp. table, p. 172.)

NOTE.—*Kolhâpûr* was the seat of a very ancient Hindû kingdom. It was then under Bijanagar; subjugated by the Muhammadans in the fifteenth century; and finally came into Sivajî's hands. In 1818, the Râja, Abâ Sahèb, heartily aided the English.

There were troubles in 1843.
The contingent aided the mutineers in 1857, and the whole S. Mahratta country was ready to rise. Colonel Le Grand Jacob successfully repressed the incipient rebellion.

§ 48. By 1734 Mahratta power was, through the connivance of Nizâm-ul-Mulk, fully established in Mâlwâ, where Jey Sing, the Râjpût governor appointed by the emperor, a great scholar and astronomer, was entirely under their influence. Dia Bahâdûr, a Brâhman, had been made Subahdâr, and so oppressed the people that Bâjî Râo was invited to come to their relief.

The Mahrattas in Mâlwâ.

In 1741, Bâjî's sons, Bâlâjî and Chimnajî, were appointed Subahdârs of Mâlwâ by Muhammad Shâh.

§ 49. In 1736, Bâjî Râo, with his Mahrattas, after a partial defeat inflicted on them by Sâdat Khân, appeared under the walls of Delhi; and now Nizâm-ul-Mulk was induced for a time to return and assist the harassed emperor.

In Delhi, 1736.

He collected troops from every quarter, and, marching into Mâlwâ, met Bâjî Râo near Bhôpâl. Both armies were large and well supplied. Nizâm, at first successful in driving them from Delhi, afterwards allowed himself to be surrounded; and, unable to escape from the blockade, was compelled to sign a convention, granting to the Peshwâ the whole of Mâlwâ and the territory between the Narbaddah and the Chambal, and to engage to try to obtain fifty lakhs of rupees from the emperor as payment of the Peshwâ's expenses.

The humiliation of Nizâm-ul-Mulk.

This was Nizâm's severest misfortune.

§ 50. Soon after this the tidings of the arrival of Nâdir Shâh reached Bâjî Râo.

Nâdir Shâh, 1738, 9.

He was greatly excited by the intelligence. "There is now," said he, "but one enemy in Hindûstân.

Bâjî Râo's excitement.

Hindûs and Musalmâns, the whole power of the Dakhan must assemble, and I shall spread our Mahrattas from the Narbaddah to the Chambal."

Nâdir Shâh's letter to Bâji Rao and Sahu.

Nâdir Shâh's retreat soon followed, and he addressed letters, among others, to Sâhu and to Bâjî Râo, bidding them obey Muhammad Shâh, whom he had replaced on the throne, and threatening to return and punish them if they should disobey.

The storming of Bassein, 1739.

§ 51. There was now war between the Portuguese and the Mahrattas. The principal exploit that marks it is the storming of *Bassein*, May 1739, by the troops of Chimnajî Appâ, the Peshwâ's brother. This was the greatest siege ever undertaken by the Mahrattas. Holkâr and Sindia were both present.

The place is memorable in after Mahratta history. (§ 88.)

NOTE.—*Bassein* (Wasai) is on an island N. of Salsette. It is in ruins, not having been inhabited for half a century. There are the tombs of *Lorenzo Almeida* (ch. vi. § 10), and of the great *Albuquerque*. (Ch. vi. § 14.)

(1.) Taken by Portuguese, 1534.
(2.) Lost by them, 1739.
(3.) Taken by Goddard, 1780 (§ 101).
(4.) Treaty in 1802.

Bâji Râo's last acts.

§ 52. Bâjî Râo, after settling his northern frontier, putting his affairs in Mâlwâ in order, and making treaties with the Râja of Bandêlkhand and the Râjpûts, set himself to achieve the conquest of the Dakhan and the Carnatic. (Comp. p. 134.)

Nizâm's second son, Nâsir Jung, was then at Aurungâbâd as his father's representative; and, after a fruitless campaign, Bâjî was obliged to make peace with him.

The Peshwâ's troubles.

(§ 45.)

The Peshwâ's end was drawing near. He had suffered much annoyance from the rivalry of Damajî Gaekwâr (founder of the Barôda State), Raghujî Bhonslê, cousin and successor of Parsajî (founder of the Nâgpûr State), and Fatih Sing Bhonslê.

Summary. Bâjî Râo's character. CH. V. § 53, 54. A.D. 1740.

§ 53. Bâjî Râo died in 1740 (28th April). This is an æra in Indian history.

State of India about 1740.

(1.) Muhammad Shâh is on the throne of Delhi, which has just been robbed by Nâdir Shâh of thirty millions of pounds sterling (1739). (Ch. iii. § 15.) — Delhi, the 12th Mogul.

(2.) Nâdir Shâh, the Persian, is reigning from Mûltân to Ispahân. (Assassinated in 1747.) — Persia.

(3.) Nizâm-ul-Mulk is Umîr-al-Omrah, or chief of the nobles in Delhi; but at this time transfers his title to his eldest son, Ghâzi-ud-dîn, and marches to the Dakhan, where his second son, Nâzir Jung, is planning to make himself independent. (Ch. iii. § 15.) — Nizâm-ul-Mulk.

(4.) Sâdat Khân is just dead. His nephew, Safder Jung, succeeds him in Oudh (1739). (Ch. iii. § 17, 18.) — Oudh.

(5.) The Jâts have recently finished the fortifications of Bhartpûr, a city to be afterwards twice besieged, by *Lake* and by *Combermere*. — Bhartpûr.

(6.) Alî-vardî Khân has made himself master of Bengâl, Bahâr, and Orissa (1740). — Alî-vardî Khân. (Ch. iii. § 15.)

(7.) The Rohillas, under Alî Muhammad Khân, have recently established themselves in Rohilkhand. (Ch. iii. § 15; ch. ix. § 36.) — Rohillas.

(8.) Dôst Alî succeeded as Nuwâb of Arcot, in 1733. His son-in-law, Chandâ Sahêb, by his infamous treachery, obtained possession of Trichinopoly in 1736. [Ch. vii. § 7 (13, &c.)] — Carnatic. (§ 55.)

(9.) Syajî, grandson of Venkajî or Ekojî, Sivajî's brother, is ruler of Tanjôr.

(10.) The English and French have not as yet risen above the rank of petty traders. (Comp. ch. vii.)

(11.) The Portuguese were humbled by the loss of Bassein. (§ 51.) They never recovered the blow. — 1737.

(12.) The Mysôr state enjoyed peace under its native rulers. (Ch. xii. § 11.)

Haidar Alî was just entering the service under Nandirâj. He was then thirty-eight years of age. — Born 1702. Died 1782.

§ 54. Bâjî Râo was ambitious, a thorough soldier, hardy, self-denying, persevering, and, after his fashion, patriotic. — The character of Bâji Râo.

He was no unworthy rival of Nizâm-ul-Mulk, and wielded the mighty arm of Mahratta power with incomparable energy.

1740. The Mahrattas in the Carnatic. *First Battle of Ambûr.* (This pass is a little north of Chitôr.)

§ 55. This year the Mahrattas invaded the Carnatic, attacked Dôst Alî, Nuwâb of Arcot, in the neighbourhood of the Dâmalchêri pass, routed and slew him. They were bought off by his successor, Safdar Alî, who engaged them to attack Trichinopoly, and dislodge Chandâ Sahêb, his brother-in-law, of whose growing power he was jealous. (Ch. vii. § 7.)

Chandâ Sahêb, a captive, 1741.

Trichinopoly was taken (March 26, 1741). Chandâ Sahêb was carried captive to Satârâ; and Morârî Râo was left in charge of the city, which he held till 1743, when he was made chief of Gûti, and evacuated the Carnatic.

The Third Peshwâ, 1740–1761.

§ 56. Bâlâjî Bâjî Râo, commonly called the THIRD PESHWÂ, succeeded his father; not, however, without opposition.

The Mahratta chiefs. (Comp. § 45.)

At this time, Raghujî Bhonslê may be looked upon as Râja of Berâr; Ananda Râo Puâr, as Râja of Dhâr; Damajî Gaekwâr, as independent in Gujarât; Mulhâr Râo Holkâr, in the south of Mâlwâ; Jayapa Sindia, in the north-east of Mâlwâ; Fatih Sing Bhonslê, in Akulkôt; while Sambajî reigned in Kolhâpûr. Sâhu was in his luxurious retirement in Satârâ.

Pûna the residence of the Peshwâs.

Pûna about this time became the residence of the Peshwâs, and may be regarded as the capital of the widely-extended Mahratta confederacy. Thus rapidly had Sivajî's kingdom grown, in 60 years, into an empire, destined in another 60 years to fall to pieces. [1680–1740–1800.]

Bâlâjî's confirmation by the emperor.

§ 57. Bâlâjî now applied to the emperor (Muhammad Shâh) for confirmation in his office. He was appointed Subâhdâr of Mâlwâ (§ 48). This was granted through the mediation of Râja Jey Sing and Nizâm-ul-Mulk.

Mahratta depredations in Bengâl, Bahâr, and Orissa.

The provinces of Bengâl, Bahâr, and Orissa, were the scenes of continual wars between Alî-vardî Khân and Raghujî Bhonslê, which ended in the establishment of the Mahratta power in Kuttack in 1751.

Alî-vardî at length agreed to pay *chout*.

Bhaskar Pandit, a general of Raghujî, defeated Alîvardî, and took prisoner Hubîb Khân, one of his generals, whom he induced to enter the Mahratta service. This man repeatedly ravaged Bengâl; and it was on this account that the Mahratta ditch was dug. (Ch. vii. § 6.) The Pandit was afterwards basely assassinated by Alî-vardî.

Hubîb Khân.

§ 58. Now began the invasions of Hindûstân by Ahmad Shâh Abdâlî, which ended in the terrible overthrow of the Mahrattas at Pânipat in 1761. On this occasion he was defeated at Sirhind, by *Ahmad Shâh*, the son of the emperor.

The Abdâlî's first expedition, 1747. (Ch. iii. § 15.)

§ 59. Sâhu died in 1748, and was succeeded by Râm Râja, the posthumous son of the second Sivajî, whose birth had been kept a secret (1712); but Bâlâjî, with his usual duplicity, contrived to maintain his ground, and to involve in ruin those who would have made the death of the Râja an occasion for attempting to shake his power.

The death of Sâhu, 1748. His successor, Râm Râja.

§ 60. Târa Bâî, the grandmother of the Râja, took occasion, when Bâlâjî was absent on an expedition against Salâbat Jung and M. Bussy (ch. iii. § 16), to imprison Râm Râja, whose fidelity to the Peshwâ could not be shaken, and to call in Damajî Gaekwâr to "rescue the Mahratta state from the power of the Brâhmans."

Târa Bâî's intrigues.

§ 61. Bâlâjî's energy enabled him to overcome this confederacy. His war with Salâbat Jung and Bussy, though he sustained a great defeat from the French at Râjapûr, was terminated by an armistice in April 1752, without dishonour to the Mahrattas.

Bâlâjî and the Nizâm. (*Dânda Râjapûr*, 40 miles S. by E. from Bombay.)

§ 62. Meanwhile Raghujî Bhonslê had secured the whole province of Kuttack as far as *Balasôre*, and had wrested from the Hyderâbâd dominion all the districts between the Wain Gangâ and the Godâvarî. (Comp. § 134.) He died in 1755, and was succeeded by his eldest son Janojî. (§ 72.)

The progress of the Nâgpur chief, 1752. (*Baléshwar*, the principal seaport, 103 miles from Kuttack.)

Ragobâ.

His character.

§ 63. It is about this time that *Ragunâtha Râo* (or *Ragobâ*), brother of Bâlâjî, who was to play such an important part in the first (English) *Mahratta war*, begins to appear in history. He was brave; but rash, full of ambition, foolish, and headstrong. Whatever he attempted was showy but ill-considered, and he invariably ruined every cause he undertook.

Ragobâ's history.

In 1751 we find him in Sûrat (at the time Clive was in Arcot), of which he vainly strove to get possession; and in 1755 he took Ahmadâbâd, the capital of Gujarât, which was in charge of Damaji Gaekwâr.

He returned to the Dakhan in 1755; and the indolence of Bâlâji gave to him and to Sivadasha Chimnaji (son of Chimnaji Appâ, brother of Bâji Râo) the chief management of affairs.

(Commonly, *Sevdasha Râo.*)

Holkâr and Sindia.

§ 64. Of the other Mahratta chiefs the most active now were Mulhâr Râo Holkâr (see tables, § 75* and p. 191), and Jayapa Sindia. The former was the chief aider of Mîr Shahâbodîn or Ghâzi-ud-dîn IV. (ch. iii. § 18) in the deposition of Ahmad Shâh and the elevation of Âlamgîr II. in 1754.

The pirates on the western coast.

Sidîs.

§ 65. The English at this time came into closer contact with the Mahrattas. Along the western coast there were several chiefs of Abyssinian descent, called Sidîs (a corruption of *Seiad*, a name generally given to Africans in India). The most important of these was the Sîdî of Jinjîra, an island in the harbour of Râjapûr.

Jinjîra.

His ships swept the whole western coast. Another chief of great power was *Tulaji Angria*, one of a race of pirates whose head-quarters were at *Viziadrûg*, or *Gheriah*, and Saverndrûg. The Sîdî of Jinjîra was from 1733 an ally of England.

(Gheriah, 82 miles N.N.W. from Goa.)

Angria. (Ch. ix. § 8.)

Several attempts were made by the English, in concert with the Peshwâ, to rescue Sûrat from the Sîdî of Jinjîra, and to prevent the piracies of Angria. Commodore James took Saverndrûg in March 1755; and in 1756 (Colonel) Clive with Admiral Watson, by direction of the Bombay Government, undertook and effected the utter destruction of the pirates' stronghold. (Ch. viii. § 27).

The English destroy the pirates' stronghold, 1755, 1756.

A treaty between the Bombay authorities (Governor Bouchier, 1750–1760) and the Peshwâ was concluded in October 1756, by which, among other things, ten villages, including Bankût, with the command of that river, were given to the English.

(Or *Fort Victoria*, 73 miles S. by E. from Bombay.)

§ 66. The year 1757, which the battle of Plassey has rendered memorable in English history, was marked by an invasion of the Carnatic by the Peshwâ in person. Mysôr was then under the power of Nandirâj, the Dîwân of Chick Kistna Râyar; and Haidar Alî, an adventurer, whose rise resembled that of Sivajî, was then coming into notice. The Mahrattas levied tribute from Mysôr (though a brave resistance was made), as well as from the Nuwâb of Arcot, Muhammad Alî, then under British protection. (Ch. xii. § 12.)

The Mahrattas in Mysôr, 1757.

§ 67. In 1759, after various intrigues, the Bombay Government obtained the town and port of Sûrat, in spite of opposition from Pûna. A pension was given to the titular Nuwâb. The title became extinct in 1842.

Sûrat.

§ 68. In 1760 the Mahrattas obtained their greatest success, as in 1761 they sustained their most disastrous defeat.

The battles of ÛDGHÎR and PÂNIPAT respectively mark the attainment of their highest elevation, and the destruction of their hopes of ever ruling India.

The battle of Ûdghir, 1760. (*Udaya-giri* = the hill of the sunrise, 40 miles N.N.W. from Bidar.)

ÛDGHÎR. The Peshwâ had obtained possession of Ahmadnagar, to wrest which from him, *Salâbat Jung* and Nizâm Alî marched against him. The result was a complete victory to the Peshwâ, whose chief officers were Sivadasha Râo and Ibrahim Khân Ghardî, an able Musalmân in the Mahratta service. A treaty followed, by which Daulatâbâd, Asîrghar, Bijapûr, and the province of Aurungâbâd, were made over to the Mahrattas.

The Mahrattas after the battle of Ûdghir.

The Moguls were thus confined for the time within the narrowest limits.

Moguls humbled.

The Mahrattas fail.

Had the Mahrattas now possessed lofty and patriotic aims, they might have become the rulers of India.

The tidings from the north-west.

§ 69. The Peshwâ was encamped on the bank of the Manjêra, near Ûdghîr. He was triumphant; but he was to hear tidings there which would break his heart.

Or the *Second*.

§ 70. I. It is necessary to give a summary of the events which led to the FOURTH BATTLE OF PÂNIPAT, before entering upon an account of the battle itself. (See ch. iii. § 19, 20.)

The events which lead to the fourth battle of Pânipat, 1761.

(1.) Mûltân and Lâhôr had been conquered by Ahmad Shâh Abdâlî in 1748. (Ch. iii. § 18.)

Mîr Munu. (Ch. iii. § 19.) Ghâzi-ud-dîn IV.

(2.) Mîr Munu, who was made viceroy of these conquests by him, died in 1756, and left a widow. Great confusion ensued, and the Sikhs greatly increased.

(3.) Mîr Shahâbodîn, Vazîr of Delhi (grandson of Nizâm-ul-Mulk, commonly called Ghâzî-ud-dîn IV.), invaded this province, claiming the daughter of Mîr Munu, who had been betrothed to him; seized on the widow, carried her to Delhi, and appointed Adina Beg governor.

The Abdâlî's fourth invasion.

(4.) This brought the Abdâlî across the Indus for the fourth time. He marched on Delhi, took it, plundered it, and also Muttra; and left it in 1756 (the year of the Black Hole), leaving Nazîb-ud-daula, a Rohilla chief, in charge of Âlamgîr II.

Ragobá and Ghazi.

(5.) Mîr Shahâbodîn allied himself with Ragobâ, and by force recovered Delhi and the charge of the emperor's person. Like all Ragobâ's doings, this was foolish. The Abdâlî was not to be trifled with.

The foolish Lâhor expedition.

(6.) Ragobâ invaded Lâhôr, making a splendid but temporary conquest (May 1758). This was the cause of the war of the Mahrattas with Ahmad Shâh Abdâlî, and from this may be dated the beginning of the decline of the Mahratta power.

Ahmad S. Abdâli's fifth invasion.

(7.) The Rohilla, Nazîb-ud-daula, and Shuja-ud-daula, Nuwâb of Oudh, took up arms in self-defence against the Mahrattas; and Ahmad Shâh Abdâlî crossed the Indus for the fifth time, to aid the confederates against the hated Hindû race. He was, however, as much an object of terror to the one party as to the other.

The Pretender.

(8.) Mîr Shahâbodîn now put Âlamgîr II. to death, and set up Shâh Jehân, son of Kâm Baksh (table, p. 122), as emperor. (Comp. p. 138.)

(9.) Alî Gohar (Shâh Alam II.) escaped, and became a tool in the hands of Shuja-ud-daula of Oudh. (Ch. ix. § 13.) His history is intimately connected with that of the English under Clive. — Shâh Âlam II.

(10.) Mîr Shahâbodîn, abandoning his puppet emperor, sought refuge with Surâj Mal, Râja of the Jâts. All waited the issue of the Abdâlî's resistless invasion. — Ghâzi flees.

(11.) The Mahrattas, under M. R. Holkâr and Duttajî Sindia, retreated along the west bank of the Jamna, before Ahmad Shâh Abdâlî, and lost two-thirds of their number near Delhi. Here Duttajî and Jutîba were killed. — The battle of Delhi. Abdâli.

(12.) A further slaughter of Holkâr's troops by the Afghâns took place at Sikandra, near Delhi. — Sikandra. (About 31 miles S.E. from Delhi.)

§ 70. II. The battle itself: *the Flodden-field of the Mahrattas.* — The fourth battle of Pânipat, 1761.

(1.) Sivadasha Râo Bhâo and Viswas Râo, son of the Peshwâ, now marched northward to recover the lost reputation of the Mahrattas, and to drive the Afghâns beyond the Attock. Ûdghîr had unduly elated them. — Northward. — The elation of the Mahrattas.

The struggle was to be final: it was to give, they said, all India to a Hindû power.

(2.) They had 20,000 chosen horse, 10,000 infantry and artillery, under Ibrahim Khân Ghardî, who had been trained by Bussy, though now in Mahratta employ (§ 68). — Their forces.

(3.) The Mahrattas (and it was a sign of decay), contrary to old custom, took the field with great splendour. All Mahratta chiefs were ordered to join them. — The Mahratta army.

Among those present were Mulhâr Râo Holkâr, ~~Jankoji~~ Sindia, Damajî Gaekwâr, Jeswant Râo Puar, and representatives of every Mahratta family of consequence. Surâj Mal, the Jât chieftain of Bhartpûr, was their principal ally. — The leaders and allies.

The total number of Mahratta troops assembled was 55,000 horse, 15,000 foot, and about 200,000 Pindârîs and followers. They had 200 pieces of cannon. — Total.

The Muhammadans had 46,800 horse, 38,000 foot, and 70 pieces of cannon.

(4.) Without much difficulty the Mahrattas occupied Delhi, and the ambitious Sivadasha Râo proposed to place Viswas Râo, the eldest son of the Peshwâ, on the throne, and thus to assume the empire of Hindûstân. This was postponed, however, till the Afghâns should have been driven across the Indus. — In Delhi.

The Vazir of Oudh.

(5.) Sivadasha Râo, by his arrogance, alienated the Jât leader and his Râjpût allies; and while the Hindûs were thus splitting up, the Abdâlî induced Shuja-ud-daula of Oudh to join his fellow Muhammadans; though he never became a violent enemy of the Maurattas, and often acted the part of a mediator.

A pretender.

(6.) The Mahratta leader now raised Jawân Bukht, son of Alî Ghôr (Shâh Alam II.) to the throne, and marched out of Delhi.

p. 122.

The Abdâlî crossed to the western bank of the Jamna, and followed the Mahrattas to Pânipat, where they had strongly intrenched themselves.

Fabian policy.

(7.) From October 28 to January 6, 1761, continual skirmishes took place; but the Abdâlî, adopting a Fabian policy, steadily refused a general engagement. The improvident Mahrattas were without provisions or money; and were, in fact, closely besieged.

The battle.

(8.) On the 7th January, Sivadasha Râo sent a note to their friendly mediator, Shuja-ud-daula, saying, "The cup is now full to the brim, and cannot hold another drop;" and the whole Mahratta army, prepared to conquer or die, marched out to attack the Afghân camp. From daybreak till 2 P.M. the rival cries of "*Har, Har, Mâdêo,*" and "*Dîn, Dîn,*" resounded. The Afghâns were physically stronger, and in this terrible struggle their powers of endurance at last prevailed against the fierceenthusiasm of the Mahrattas.

Death of the Mahratta leaders.

(9.) By 2 P.M. Viswas Râo was killed. In despair Sivadasha Râo descended from his elephant, mounted his horse, and charged into the thickest of the fight. He was seen no more. Jeswant Râo Puar also was killed.

The day after the battle.

(10.) Holkâr left the field early, with some imputation on his fidelity to his cause. Damajî Gaekwâr also escaped. Thousands perished in the flight, and the remainder were surrounded, taken prisoners, and cruelly beheaded the next morning. Among these were Jankojî Sindia and Ibrahim Khân Ghardî.

The tidings.

(11.) Of the few who escaped to bear the tidings to the Peshwâ, who was still encamped between the Manjêra and the Godâvarî,

Bâlâjî Jenârdin.

was Bâlâjî Jenârdîn, who afterwards became so famous under his official title of the Nânâ Farnavis (*the lord of the records*). The announcement of the disaster was made in these figurative words: "*Two pearls have been dissolved*, twenty-seven gold mohurs have been lost, and of the silver and copper the total cannot be cast up."

Death of Bâlâjî B. Râo, 1761.

§ 71. The Peshwâ never recovered the shock, and died at Pûna in June.

His character.

He was cunning, sensual, and indolent; but charitable and kindly; and his memory is respected by his countrymen.

The whole Mahratta race was thus thrown into mourning in 1761: their hope of supremacy in India had vanished, while every family bewailed its dead.

(Compare here ch. iii. § 21.)

PART IV.—Mahratta History from the Fourth Battle of Pânipat to the end of the First Mahratta War (1761–1782).

Pânipat to Salbâî.

The fourth Peshwâ, 1761–1772. Mâdu (or *Mahdéo*) Râo. Sometimes called *Bullal*.

§ 72. The fourth Peshwâ was Mâdu Râo, the second son of Bâlâjî Râo, the younger brother of the unfortunate Viswas Râo; who was appointed to the office by Râm Râja, the nominal sovereign, who was still in confinement in Satârâ.

Mâdu Râo, a hero. (Table, § 158*.)

Mâdu Râo succeeded at the age of seventeen, and died in 1772, at the early age of twenty-eight. He was the most heroic of the line. His uncle, Ragunâthâ Râo (Ragobâ), was his guardian.

The Mogul opportunity wasted.

This was the time for the Moguls to avenge their defeat at Ûdghîr, and regain their ascendancy in the Dakhan; but they only succeeded in obtaining some cessions in Aurungâbâd and Berâr. There were, in fact, five Mahratta states, and no real union.

Nizâm Alî's imprisonment and murder of his brother, Salâbat Jung, took place in 1762–63. (Ch. iii. § 16.)

Ragobâ's difficulties. (He succeeded Raghuji in 1755, § 62.)

Dissensions prevailed during this period among the Mahratta leaders, and Ragobâ had to wage a civil war before he could gain his full authority as regent. He

had also to fight with Nizâm Alî, who was stirred up by Janojî Bhonslê of Berâr, who hoped to make himself supreme in the Mahratta confederacy. Ragobâ behaved with much courage and prudence; and, though Pûna was once sacked by Nizâm Alî, at length defeated the Moguls, and made an advantageous peace.

The four ablest Mahrattas, 1761–1772. [§ 70, II. (11)]. (Mamâ = *uncle.*)

§ 73. At this time, and for many years after, Sakarâm Bappu and Nânâ Farnavîs (a young man, just rising into importance), were the ablest Mahratta statesmen; while Trimback Râo Mamâ and Harî Pant Phâkre were the greatest soldiers in the service of the Pûna Government.

Haidar Alî, 1760.

§ 74. There was now rising, in the Carnatic, an enemy to the Mahrattas, who, imitating Sivajî, was laying the foundations of a kingdom. This was Haidar Alî. (Ch. xii. § 13.)

Mâdu Râo and Haidar Alî, 1764.

To oppose Haidar, in 1764 the young Peshwâ led an army across the Kishtna. The issue of the campaign was favourable to the Mahrattas; and Haidar was compelled to abandon all he had taken from the chiefs of that nation, and to pay thirty-two lakhs of rupees.

February 1765.

The English in 1764.

At this period, the nation which was eventually to crush the Mahrattas was rapidly gaining dominion in India. To the English there were three powers only that could offer any opposition. *These were the Mahrattas, Nizâm Alî, and Haidar.* (Comp. ch. viii.)

The Four Powers.

While Mâdu Râo continued his inroads upon Haidar's dominions at intervals, the English were waiting for an opportunity of effecting the subjugation of both.

Indôr affairs. Mulhâr Râo Holkâr, 1724–1766.

§ 75. In 1766, *Mulhâr Râo Holkâr* died. For forty-two years he had been one of the bravest spirits among the Mahrattas (§ 45).

Like David, from a shepherd he became a king!

Ahalyâ Bâi, 1766–1795.

He had only one son, Khandî Râo, who died in 1755;

and his grandson, Mallî Râo, died soon after his grandfather. The widow of Khandî Râo, whose name was AHALYÂ BÂÎ, succeeded to the supreme authority in Indôr, and held it till her death in 1795. She was one of the most extraordinary women that ever lived. She adopted, by consent of the Peshwâ, an experienced soldier called *Tûkajî Holkâr*, who was no relation to the family. He assumed command of the army, and one of his descendants still rules in Indôr (§ 118, 140, 160). The Holkâr family.

**

Lat. 22° 41′ N., Long. 75° 50′ E. It was a small village till Ahalyâ Bâî made it her permanent encampment. INDÔR.

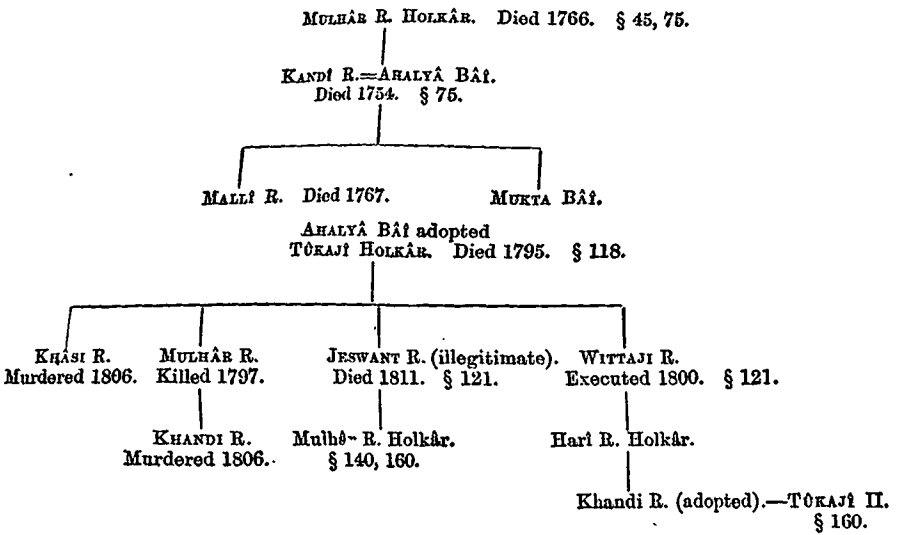
Tûkajî always paid to Ahalyâ Bâî filial reverence. She ruled, while he was commander-in-chief. The double Government in Mâlwâ.

She was devout, merciful, and laborious to an extraordinary degree; and, by her wise administration, raised Indôr from a village to a wealthy city. She was well educated, and possessed a remarkably acute mind. She became a widow when she was twenty years old, and her son died a raving maniac soon after. These things coloured her whole existence. She lived an ascetic life. In many things she was like the English Queen Elizabeth, but in one she far excelled her: she was insensible to flattery. Her character and history.

While living, she was "one of the purest and most exemplary rulers that ever existed," and she is now worshipped in Mâlwâ as an incarnation of the Deity. Worshipped.

§ 76. We return now to Pûna. In 1769, while Haidar was dictating to the astonished Government of Madras the famous treaty (ch. xii. § 21), the Peshwâ, Mâdu Râo was involved in difficulties, arising from the restless ambition of his uncle Ragobâ, and of Janojî, the Râja of Nâgpûr. His conduct towards his uncle was as wise and forbearing as that of the latter was treacherous and Dissensions in Pûna. Mâdu Râo's difficulties.

§ 75*. THE HOLKÂR, OR INDÔR, FAMILY, OF THE SHEPHERD TRIBE.


Mulhâr R. Holkâr. Died 1766. § 45, 75.
Kandî R.=Ahalyâ Bâî. Died 1754. § 75.
Mallî R. Died 1767.
Mukta Bâî.
Ahalyâ Bâî adopted Tûkajî Holkâr. Died 1795. § 118.
Khâsi R. Murdered 1806.
Mulhâr R. Killed 1797.
Jeswant R. (illegitimate). Died 1811. § 121.
Wittaji R. Executed 1800. § 121.
Khandi R. Murdered 1806.
Mulhâr R. Holkâr. § 140, 160.
Harî R. Holkâr.
Khandi R. (adopted).—Tûkajî II. § 160.

inconsistent. Mâdu yielded him all respect; but maintained his own authority. The Berâr Râja—never faithful to the Peshwâ, hating, as he did, Brâhman ascendancy—was ever ready to intrigue or fight against the Pûna Government. The Peshwâ succeeded, however, in bringing him to complete submission. Ragobâ himself was taken prisoner, and confined in Pûna, till released by Mâdu Râo just before his death (1772). Ragobâ in prison.

§ 77. The affairs of the other great Mâlwâ, or SINDIA, branch of the Mahrattas now demand attention. Rânojî was the founder of this family (§ 45, 56). His son Jayapa succeeded him, and was assassinated in 1759. Jankojî, the third of the line, was executed the day after the battle of Pânipat (§ 70). An illegitimate son of Rânojî, by name MAHÂDAJÎ, became, in 1761, the head of the family. He had been wounded at the battle of Pânipat, and was lame ever after. We shall find him the chief rival of the Nânâ Farnavîs, and virtually independent after the treaty of Salbâî. Sindia, the founder of the Gwâliôr *State*. Mahâdajî, 1761–1794.

Till his death in 1794, he was the most prominent Mahratta leader. (§ 110.)

§ 78. Mahratta history is ennobled by the character of Râm Sâstrî, who was Mâdu's tutor and spiritual guide. Profoundly learned, a pattern of integrity and of prudence, he reproved princes, awed the most dissolute, showed a bright example of industry, zeal, and benevolence, and is still revered as the *Sir Matthew Hale* of the Mahrattas. Râm Sâstrî.

§ 79. The last great effort of Mâdu's life was his expedition into the Carnatic, to enforce the payment of the tribute, which Haidar, relying on his treaty with the English, had dared to withhold. (Ch. xii. § 22.) Mâdu Râo in the Carnatic, 1770.

The campaign of 1770 was unfavourable to Haidar;

but Mâdu Râo was compelled by sickness to return to Pûna, and Trimback Mamâ was left in command.

Haidar defeated at Chérkûll.

After a terrible defeat, upon the infliction of which the Mahrattas greatly prided themselves, the Mysôr army was shut up in Seringapatam. The siege was unsuccessful; but a peace, by which Haidar virtually yielded all demands, was made in April 1772. (Ch. xii. § 22.)

1769. The Mahrattas again in Hindûstân.

§ 80. In 1769 the Mahrattas again crossed the Chambal, being the first time that they had ventured to show themselves in Hindûstân, in any force, since their terrible disaster in 1761.

They then levied tribute from the Râjpût states, and overran the districts occupied by the Jâts; and in the neighbourhood of Bhartpûr dictated an agreement, by which sixty-five lakhs of rupees were to be paid as tribute by the latter people.

The Mahrattas supreme in Delhi, 1770–1803.

§ 81. And now began the series of transactions which put Shâh Âlâm II., the nominal Emperor of Delhi, into the absolute power of the Mahrattas; and made them, in fact, masters, for the time, of the empire. (Ch. iii. § 18.)

(1.) They overran Rohilkhand, 1771. This was the remote cause of the famous Rohilla war. (Ch. ix. § 36.)

(2.) They again took possession of Delhi, under Mahâdajî Sindia, with a body of 30,000 men.

(3.) Having maintained a friendly intercourse with Shuja-ud-daula, Nuwâb of Oudh and nominal Vazîr of the empire, they took Shâh Âlam II., who left British protection, and placed him on the throne in Delhi (ch. iii. § 23), December 1771. For this they received £100,000.

Visajî Kishen, Tûkajî Holkâr, and Mahâdajî Sindia, were the leaders.

The death of Mâdu Râo, 1772.

§ 82. Mâdu Râo, who had long been sick, died of consumption on the 18th November 1772, in his twenty-

eighth year. His early death was as great a calamity to the Mahrattas as the defeat at Pânipat. He was the *Black Prince* of the race; brave and prudent; bent on promoting the welfare of his people; firm in maintaining his own authority; and, with many difficulties to encounter, a successful ruler. (Hastings in Calcutta.) (Ch. ix. § 35.) His character.

The Mahratta revenue at the period of his death may be calculated at £7,000,000 sterling. The army at the command of the Peshwâ, at this period, numbered not less than 100,000 magnificent horsemen, and a fair proportion of foot and artillery.

Disunion was the ruin of this apparently prosperous empire. § 139.

§ 83. On the death of the Peshwâ, his younger brother, Nârâyaṇa Râo, succeeded him, in his eighteenth year. (Table, § 158*.) His uncle, Ragobâ, now released, was his guardian. Sakarâm Bappu was prime minister, and Nânâ Farnavîs one of the high officers of state. THE FIFTH PESHWÁ, 1772-1773. (§ 73.)

The young Peshwâ himself was ambitious of military distinction.

Concord did not long prevail, and Ragobâ was again put under restraint in the palace of the Peshwâ. (1773, April.)

In August, Nârâyaṇa Râo was murdered. A conspiracy, which Ragobâ favoured, had been formed to seize the young Peshwâ; but the murder seems to have been planned by Anandâ Bâî, the wicked wife of Ragobâ. When the assassins attacked the poor youth, he ran to his uncle's apartments, and begged him to defend him. This Ragobâ tried to do, but in vain. The murder of Nârâyaṇa Râo, 1773. Aug. 30, 1773.

§ 84. Ragobâ now assumed the dignity of Peshwâ (1773), and pushed on the war with the Nizâm and Haidar with vigour and good fortune. Ragobâ nominal Peshwâ.

§ 86. THE BHONSLÊ FAMILY OF BERÂR.

(Comp. p. 8, 9.)

A KSHATRYA FAMILY.

PARSAJÎ. § 45. His cousin and successor was RAGHUJÎ BHONSLÊ, Râja of Berâr, 1734. Took Kuttack, 1752. Died 1753. § 45, 52.

- JANOJÎ. Died 1773. § 62.
- SABAJÎ. Died 1774. § 86.
  - APPÂ SAHÊB. § 159.
- MÛDAJÎ. Died 1788. § 111.
  - Raghujî II. Died 1816. § 150.
    - Parsajî. Murdered by his Cousin, APPÂ SAHÊB, 1818. § 159.
    - Or, Raghujî B. III. Died 1853. Race extinct. § 159.
- BÎMBAJÎ.

§ 89. THE GAEKWÂR FAMILY.

DAMAJÎ. Died in 1721.

1. PILAJÎ GAEKWÂR.* Murdered in 1732. § 45.

2. DAMAJÎ G. Died 1768. § 56.

- 4. GOVIND R. G. Died 1800. § 89, 112.
  - 5. ANAND R. G. Died 1819. § 122.
- 3. SYAJÎ G. Died 1792 (an idiot).
- MANAGÎ. Regent (1789–1793).
  - 6. SYAJÎ R. G. Died 1847.
    - 7. GANAPAT R. Died 1856.
      - 8. KHANDI R.
- FATIH SING. Regent (1768–1789).

* First occupied Songur in 1719, Barôda in 1730.

Negociations between Ragobâ and the Bombay Government. CH. V. § 85, 89. A.D. 1774, 5.

§ 85. Meanwhile in Hindûstân, the Emperor Shâh Âlam II., incited by Zabîta Khân, son of Nazîb Khân, strove to free himself from the Mahratta yoke; but was at last defeated in a battle at Delhi, in December 1772. This made the Mahrattas more than ever masters of the emperor. (Ch. iii. § 23.)

(or *Najîb*, or *Nujuf*.)

§ 86. Janojî Bhonslê, the Râja of Nâgpûr, died in May, 1773; and there was a petty civil war about the succession.
Raghujî, the nephew and adopted son of Janojî, succeeded. Mûdajî and Sabajî, his uncles, were rivals for the office of regent. See table, p. 198.) Sabajî was killed in 1774, and Mûdajî remained supreme.

The affairs of Nâgpûr. (§ 150, 159.)

§ 87. A revolution was now pending at Pûna. A strong confederacy was formed against Ragobâ, of which Sakarâm Bappu, Nânâ Farnavîs, and Harî Pant Phâkre were the heads. A battle was fought, in which Ragobâ, with whom was Morârî, Râjâ of Gûti (§ 55, and ch. viii. § 22), was victorious, and Trimback Mamâ was killed; but Ragobâ's cause was ruined by the birth, in April 1774, of Nârâyana Râo's posthumous son, Mâdu Râo Nârâyana, whom, rejecting Ragobâ's claims, we may call the SIXTH PESHWÂ. (See Table, § 158*.)

Ragobâ superseded, 1774.

March 4.

Mâdu Râo Nârâyana, Sixth Peshwâ. Born April 18, 1774.

§ 88. Ragobâ advanced to the banks of the Taptî, where he hoped to be joined by Sindia and Holkâr. There he entered into a negotiation with the Bombay Government, under Mr. Hornby (Governor from 1776 to 1784), promising to cede to the English *Salsette, the smaller islands near Bombay*, and *Bassein, with its dependencies*, as the price of their assistance.

Negotiations with the Bombay Government.

(Comp. § 51.)

While these negotiations were pending, Ragobâ's son, Bâjî Râo Ragunâth, was born at Dhâr, 1774. He in due time became the SEVENTH (AND LAST) OF THE PESHWÂS.

§ 89. There was now a dispute about the succession to the Barôda Râj; for which *Govind Râo* and *Fatih Sing*, sons of Damajî, were rival claimants. (See table, p. 198.)
Ragobâ espoused the cause of the former.

Barôda affairs.

I. The Treaty of SÛRAT, 1775.

§ 90. The long-pending treaty between the Bombay Government and Ragobâ was signed March 6, 1775, at SÛRAT. The Bombay Government had already occupied Salsette, fearing that the Portuguese would re-conquer it.

This was a wrong step, doubtless: and it led to the *first Mahratta war*; but, at the time, it must have seemed the best for the British interests, since Salsette was of great importance.

[Hastings in Bengal, 1772–1785.]

Keating's first steps.

§ 91. We have now to give a summary of the first war of the Mahrattas with the English, 1775–1782.

The Bombay Government at once sent Lieutenant-Colonel Keating, and a force of 1,500 men to Sûrat, to conduct Ragobâ to Pûna, and instal him as Peshwâ.

Mahratta combination against Ragobâ.

By this time all the Mahratta chiefs, except Govind Râo (one of the Gujarât rivals, § 89), were in arms against Ragobâ and his English allies. Holkâr and Sindia had been detached from his cause by great efforts on the part of the Pûna regency.

The battle of Arras, 1775. May 15.

Keating, after some fruitless negotiations, marched from the neighbourhood of Cambay towards the banks of the Mâî, and reached the plain of Arras, where he

Victory.

gained a complete, but dearly-bought, victory. This was the first time the English had met the Mahrattas in a regular battle; and there Keating defeated a force which was ten times as large as his own.

Sea-fight.

An engagement took place also by sea, and Commodore Moor was successful. All things seemed favourable to Ragobâ, who made some further valuable cessions of territory to the Bombay Government.

Ragobâ despised by his own people.

Yet Ragobâ was unpopular with the whole Mahratta people, by whom his real character was duly estimated (§ 63).

The Calcutta Government interferes, 1774.

§ 92. The Supreme Government, with Warren Hastings at its head, assumed the administration of all the

Company's affairs in India, according to the provisions of the Regulating Act, on 20th October, 1774. (Comp. x. § 3–8.)

They (or rather Hastings' opponents) pronounced the treaty with Ragobâ (the Sûrat treaty, § 90) to be "impolitic, dangerous, unauthorised, and unjust;" and sent Colonel Upton to Pûna, who concluded the treaty of Pûrandar (near Pûna) with Sakarâm Bappu and Nânâ Farnavîs on 1st March, 1776. Ragobâ was to be abandoned, but Salsette (after a fierce discussion) retained. Hastings, however, thought that the war should be carried on, as the Bombay Government had embarked in it.

II. The Treaty of Pûrandar, 1776.

Mr. Hornby, then at the head of the Bombay Government, was a sincere and able man. He believed Ragobâ (who had, in fact, been pronounced guiltless by Râm Sâstrî after careful investigation (§ 78)), to be innocent, and Mâdu Râo Nârâyaṇa to be a supposititious child.

Differences between the Bombay Government and the Supreme Government.

The Supreme Government seem to have been right in principle, but wrong in the peremptory and sudden manner in which they set at nought the acts and the opinions of their countrymen on the western coast.

§ 93. The Bombay Government, accordingly, still clung to Ragobâ's cause, denounced the treaty of Pûrandar as injurious to British interests, and received Ragobâ himself with two hundred followers into Sûrat, where he appealed to the Directors and to King George III.

Ragobâ at Sûrat.

His efforts.

The Court of Directors approved of the treaty of Sûrat, and encouraged the Bombay authorities to break through the treaty of Pûrandar; and, at last, the intrigues of the Pûna Government with the French compelled the Supreme Council to coincide with Bombay in espousing the cause of Ragobâ.

The appeal to England.

All combine to restore Ragobâ.

1777.

Satára affairs. [Table, p. 172.]

Sáhu II., 1777.

§ **94.** Râm Râja (the FOURTH of the dynasty) died December 12, 1777; and was succeeded in his nominal dignity by his adopted son, who was called Sâhu Mahârâj (§ 59).

Gangá Bái.

Gangá Bái, the mother of the Peshwá, poisoned herself about this time, under circumstances which are fatal to the good name of Nânâ Farnavis.

The English support Ragobâ.

§ **95.** It was now time for some decisive action on the part of the English.

St. Lubin's mission.

An adventurer called St. Lubin, a mere charlatan, had induced the French Government (according to his own statement) to send him to Pûna, to ascertain what might be gained by an alliance with the Mahrattas.

Intrigues in Pûna.

Nânâ Farnavîs encouraged him. But the Pûna regency was itself distracted by party intrigues. Moraba Farnavis, a cousin of the Nânâ, and even Sakarâm Bappu, joined in a conspiracy to restore Ragobâ; and the Supreme Government at length united with the Bombay authorities in the resolution to bring him back to Pûna.

Troops sent overland from Calcutta by Warren Hastings.

§ **96.** Troops were now despatched by land from Calcutta, under Colonel Leslie; who delayed on his march, was recalled, and died in October, 1778.

Goddard in command.

Colonel Goddard, one of the great military heroes of British Indian history, then assumed command, and reached Sûrat on 6th February, 1779.

His route.

(Map, p. 7.)

His route lay through Bhîlsa, Bhôpâl, Hussangâbâd, and Burhânpûr, to Sûrat.

Bhôpâl.

(§ 150-163.)

He was treated by the Nuwâb of Bhôpâl with a kindness that laid the foundation of the amity which has ever since subsisted between that state and the British.

He entered by the way into some fruitless negotiations with Mûdajî, the protector of Berâr (§ 86). The Nâgpur Râja aided him, however, with money and provisions.

A "frantic military exploit."

This wonderful land-march was projected by Hastings himself, and filled India with astonishment. In England it was termed "a frantic military exploit;" but, without some such heroic phrensies, the English would never have become paramount in India.

The convention of Wargâom or Taligâom, 1779.

§ 97. Meanwhile, shame and disaster had befallen a portion of the Bombay army.

After many discussions and much intrigue, it was resolved at Bombay to send a force direct to Pûna, to place Ragobâ there as regent.

(or *Panwell*).

This army left Bombay November 22, 1778, landed at Panalla, ascended the ghâts to Khandâla, December 23, and on the 9th January reached Taligâom.

Egerton and Carnac.

Mr. Mostyn.

The expedition was under the command of Colonel Egerton, with whom were associated Messrs. Mostyn and Carnac. Mr. Mostyn (an able man, often employed in Mahratta affairs) died at the very outset.

"Stewart Phâkre."

Captain Stewart, an officer so brave that the Mahrattas called him "Stewart Phâkre" (*the hero Stewart*), fell near Kârlî.

At *Taligâom* the two gentlemen who were responsible came to the determination to retreat. Two thousand six hundred British troops were led back by their weak, sickly, and inexperienced commander and his civilian colleague. When within eighteen miles of Pûna, Colonel Cockburn took the command.

Hartley. The disastrous retreat.

Of course their retreat was known at once. The army was pursued; and though Captain James Hartley especially distinguished himself, it was considered impossible to retreat farther than *Wargâom*, and negotiations were commenced with Nânâ Farnavîs.

The terms of the convention.

There were two Mahratta authorities with whom Mr. Carnac could negotiate, Nânâ Farnavîs and Mahâdajî Sindia, who were rivals, though both essential to the conduct of Mahratta affairs at the time. The latter,

indeed, affected to be a mediator between Farnavîs and his enemies.

With Sindia, to whom Ragobâ had given himself up, the "*convention*" was at last concluded, Hartley protesting. He and the sepoys would have occupied Pûna with scarcely an effort, if they had been permitted.

Everything, according to this abortive and ill-omened "convention," was to be restored to the position in which it was in 1773.

An order was actually sent, forbidding the advance of the Bengâl troops; which, of course, they did not obey.

Broach was to be made over to Sindia, with 41,000 rupees in presents to his servants! (§ 102.)

Two hostages, Mr. Farmer and Lieutenant Stewart, were given. *Such was the miserable Convention of Wargâom*, January 1779.

The convention void.

The Bombay Government, under Hornby, and the Court of Directors, disallowed the convention, as beyond the powers of those who had concluded it; and dismissed Colonel Egerton, Colonel Cockburn, and Mr. Carnac from the service.

Punishment.

Reward.

Hartley was applauded, and made lieutenant-colonel at once.

If Farnavîs exultingly thought that the English would be overcome, as the Portuguese had been in 1739, he was soon undeceived.

Goddard's negotiations.

§ 98. Goddard had now (§ 96) reached Sûrat (having marched from Burhânpûr, a distance of three hundred miles, in twenty days), with instructions to negotiate a peace with Pûna, on the basis of the treaty of Pûrandar, with a provision for the exclusion of the French.

Pûna in 1779. The chiefs of the Mahratta nation.

The Mahratta chiefs at the commencement of this war, it must be remembered, were Nânâ Farnavîs, the wily statesman; his old rival Sakarâm Bappu; and Mahâdajî Sindia, all in Pûna; his old rival Sakarâm Gaekwâr, rivals in Gujarât; Mûdajî Bhonslê, guardian of his nephew Raghujî, of Berâr; Tûkajî Holkâr, and his patroness, Ahalyâ Bâi, in Mâlwâ.

The first Mahratta war (English). CH. V. § 99. 100. A.D. **1780.**

This year Hastings sent Mr. Elliot to Mûdaji, offering to form an alliance with him, and even to make him Peshwâ. This Mûdaji declined. (Ch. x. § 11.)

Poor old Sakarâm Bappu was no match for his wily colleague, and was thrown into prison. Hurried from fort to fort, he died at last miserably in Raighur (1778). — Death of Sakrâm Bappu, 1778.

In Calcutta, Hastings, Francis, Barwell, and Sir Eyre Coote were in authority. — Calcutta authorities.

§ **99.** Haidar Alî was engaged in constant hostilities with the Mahrattas. In 1778 he paid a large sum as the price of the departure of Harî Pant Phâkre. (Ch. xii. § 23.) More or less, at this period he held all the Mahratta lands south of the Kishtna. — Haidar and the Mahrattas.

Gûti was taken 1776, after a siege of nine months; and Morârî Râo (ch. viii. § 22–24) was taken prisoner. He died a captive.

§ **100.** Ragobâ had now joined Colonel Goddard as a fugitive. With him were Amrit Râo, his adopted son, and Bâjî Râo (the last of the Peshwâs, born 1775). In the negotiations now entered into, Nânâ Farnavîs demanded, as preliminary concessions, the surrender by the English of Ragobâ and of Salsette. As this was out of the question, active hostilities were commenced January 1, 1780. The forts of Dubhoy (*Dubhâî*, fifteen miles S.E. of Barôda) and the splendid city of Ahmadâbâd were taken by storm; and a treaty was made with Fatih Sing, by which the English acknowledged him as Gaekwâr of Barôda. — Negotiations broken off.

Sindia and Holkâr now joined their forces to oppose Goddard, who defeated and drove them off; but could then do no more. — April 2 and 14, 1780.

Hartley defended the Konkan, where Kaliân was taken.

Captain *William Popham*, aided by Captain *Bruce*, was sent from Bengâl to attack Mâlwâ and effect a diversion. He took Lahâr (a strongly fortified place, about fifty miles W. of Kalpî), and afterwards Gwâliôr, in the most heroic style, by escalade. These were left in the hands of the Râna of Gôhud (§ 103). — Popham, 1780. — Or *Gwâliâr*.

Gwâliôr was the chief fort of Sindia, and was regarded as an impregnable fortress. (August 4, 1780.) The Râna of *Gôhud* — Gwâliôr stormed,

August 4, 1780. (22 miles N.E. from Gwâliôr.)

was the ally whom Hastings was maintaining as a check on Sindia. The army of the latter was totally routed, March 24, 1781.

Soon after this he made peace with Hastings.

Combinations against the English. Haidar's great invasion of the Carnatic. Hornby left to himself.

§ 101. In the meanwhile came Haidar's memorable invasion of the Carnatic, July 1780. (Ch. xii. § 27.)

All the resources of Bengâl were required to aid Madras to meet this terrible attack. Bombay was left to itself. "We have no resource," said Governor Hornby, "but such as we may find in our own efforts."

Triple alliance against Britain.

The English were at this critical period engaged in two great wars. The strength of India, east and west, was arrayed against them. The Nizâm, the Mahrattas, and Haidar formed a triple anti-British alliance. (Ch. xii. § 26.)

Warren Hastings was the saviour of British India at this period.

Hartley.

Bassein taken.

Hartley kept the Konkan with admirable skill and bravery, while Goddard took Bassein. (December 11, 1780.)

Goddard's unsuccessful expedition.

Goddard was eventually compelled to retreat (and it was his only failure in the war) by the combined forces of the Mahrattas, and no great advantages were afterwards gained by either party.

III. The Peace of Salbai, 1782. (Near Gwâliôr, Sindia's camp.)

§ 102. The terms of a peace were arranged in January, 1782; but the treaty was not concluded till the end of that year. Nânâ Farnavîs delayed signing it till the 20th December, after he had received intelligence of Haidar's death, which happened December 7. It is called the treaty of SALBÂÎ. Mahâdajî Sindia, who now clearly saw that continued war with the English must be ruinous to himself, was the Peshwâ's

plenipotentiary. Its chief provisions were the following:—

(1.) Ragobâ was to have 25,000 rupees a month, and live where he chose. (He chose *Kopergâom*, on the Godâvarî, where he died in 1783. His son Bâjî Râo was then nine years old.) — Conditions of peace. Ragobâ.

(2.) All territory was to remain as before the treaty of Pûrandar. — Territory.

(3.) All Europeans, except the English and Portuguese, were to be excluded from the Mahratta dominions. — Foreigners excluded.

(4.) Haidar (who died while the treaty was being negotiated) was to be compelled to relinquish his conquests from the English, and from the Nuwâb of Arcot, in the Carnatic. (Ch. xii. § 31.) — Haidar.

(5.) Broach was given to Sindia, for his humanity to the English after the Convention of Wargâom. (§ 129.) — Sindia's reward.

This celebrated treaty marks an æra in Mahratta history.

PART V.—Mahratta History from the Treaty of Salbâî to the Treaties of 1805.

§ 103. The effect of the treaty of Salbâî was greatly to favour Sindia's desire to form an independent Mahratta dominion. He no longer regarded himself as a feudatory of the Peshwâ. About this time he took possession of Gwâliôr from the Râna of Gôhud, who had forfeited his claim to British protection; and then turned his attention to Delhi, where he obtained supreme authority, and was made by Shâh Âlam II. commander-in-chief of the Imperial forces and manager of the provinces of Delhi and Âgra. — Sindia aggrandises himself. — October, 1784.

Delhi was not freed from the Mahrattas till 1803.

§ 104. Meanwhile *Tippû* (ch. xii. § 36) was allowed to cajole the Madras Government into a treaty, which — The disgraceful treaty of Mangalôr, 1784.

was signed at *Mangalôr*, and in which no mention was made of the treaty of *Salbâî*, an omission most unfair to the Mahrattas, and unjust on the part of the English. Against this treaty, Hastings, now powerless, emphatically protested.

(Comp. ch. x. § 6.)

Sindia.

Arrogance and a rebuff.

§ 105. Sindia, in 1785, was so elated by his position at Delhi, as to make a claim on the British Government for *Chouth* for their Bengâl provinces; but Mr. Macpherson, whose character Sindia doubtless wished to test, compelled him, by a most energetic and peremptory requisition, to disavow this claim. (Ch. x. § 17.)

The Mahrattas and Tippû.

§ 106. From 1784 to 1787 the Mahrattas, in alliance with Nizâm Alî, were at war with Tippû. (Ch. xii. § 38.)

The English refuse to join in the war.

Nânâ Farnavîs made great attempts to induce the English to join them in a war against Mysôr, but in vain. While the treaty of Salbâî had bound the English and Mahrattas not to assist each other's enemies, the English were not prepared to assist in an offensive war against Tippû, to whom they were bound by the unfortunate treaty of Mangalôr. Lord Cornwallis, in fact, announced it as the English rule, *to engage in none but defensive wars!* (Ch. x. § 18–21.)

(1. *Badámi*, a strong hill-fort, 55 miles N.E. from Dhârwâr. 2. *Kittûr*, 19 miles W.N.W. from Dhârwâr. 3. *Nargund*, 31 miles N.E. from Dhârwâr.)

Nothing remarkable was effected during this war, at the conclusion of which, Badâmi, Kittûr, and Nargund were ceded to the Mahrattas, and Tippû engaged to pay forty-five lakhs of rupees as tribute. The Tûmbhadra river was then fixed as the boundary of the Mysôrean's dominions.

Mahâdajî Sindia, 1785–1789.

§ 107. From 1785 to 1789 the chief interest connected with Mahratta history is centred in Mahâdajî

Sindia, who was vigorously prosecuting his schemes in Hindûstân. He was engaged in severe struggles (nominally on behalf of the emperor) with Pratâb Sing, the Râja of Jeypûr, as well as with the Râja of Jôdhpûr, and many of the lesser Muhammadan Jaghîrdârs, from whom he tried to extort tribute.

During these conflicts, he met with several great reverses. A part of his troops was under the command of a Frenchman, General De Boigne. The famous general Ismael Beg was the leader of the Râjpût forces; and battles were fought at Patun (1790), and at Mirta (1791), where De Boigne's bravery gained the day for Sindia. Both these places are near Jeypûr. Ismael Beg.

Gholâm Kâdir, son of the Rohilla chieftain Zabîta Khân, now appeared on the scene. He was the hereditary enemy of Sindia. This infamous person, in the course of the struggle, occupied Delhi, and was guilty of unparalleled atrocities there. The wretched emperor was deprived of his eyes, and every member of his family exposed to deadly insult. (Ch. iii. § 23.) Gholâm Kâdir. Shâh Alam II. blinded.

Sindia soon recovered Delhi, and reinstated the fallen monarch. Gholâm Kâdir was taken and put to a horrible death. Bîdar Bakht, whom he had made emperor, was also slain. (Ch. iii. § 24.) The Mahrattas had become the nominal guardians, and real oppressors of the Mogul dynasty. Gholâm Kâdir's punishment.

Sindia was now fully bent on making himself an independent sovereign; and the Governor-General, Lord Cornwallis, felt so jealous of his intrigues, that he sent a minister to reside at the court of the Peshwâ, as a check upon this ambitious and intriguing chieftain.

§ 108. Tippû did not long keep peace with the Mahrattas; and in the end of 1789 made an attack on the Travancore lines (ch. xii. § 40), which led to a declaration of war against him by Lord Cornwallis, and to a treaty between Nizâm Alî, Nânâ Farnavîs, and the English, to humble the Mysôr state (1790). Combination against Tippû, 89. (ch. x. 22.)

The Mahratta contingent was commanded by Parêshrâm Bhâo. It was dilatory in its movements. Another army under Harî Pant Phâkre was also sent. The Mahrattas did little else than plunder and attend to their The Mahrattas before Seringapatam, 1792.

own interests; yet Lord Cornwallis, according to the terms of the treaty, made over to them (in February 1792), on the successful conclusion of the war, a share of Tippû's dominions, lying between the S. Warda and Kishtna.

Sindia in Pûna.

The Peshwâ's title.

June 11, 1792.

July, 1792.

Sindia's feigned humility.

§ 109. Mahâdajî Sindia continued supreme at the Mogul Court: the mayor of the palace. In 1790 he had procured for the Peshwâ from Shâh Âlam II., for the third time, the title of Vakîl-i-Mutlâq, or chief minister. Sindia and his heirs were to be perpetual deputies of the Peshwâ in this office, which was now made hereditary. Thus skilfully was his ambition veiled.

To convey the patents and insignia of this office to the Peshwâ, Sindia now marched to Pûna. His arrival filled Nânâ Farnavîs with apprehension. The ceremony of investing the Peshwâ, Mâdu Râo Nârâyaṇa, who was in his eighteenth year, with the insignia of office, was most splendid. Much was made, too, of an order issued by the emperor, in deference to the Mahrattas, forbidding the slaughter of cows in Hindûstân. Sindia's one object was to make himself supreme at Pûna; but he affected extreme humility; carried a pair of slippers as a memento of his hereditary office (§ 45); and would receive no title but that of Patêl, or village head-man.

It was now a game of skill between the Nânâ and Sindia: Brâhman against Sûdra.

War between Sindia and Holkâr, 1792.

Lakairi.

§ 110. Meanwhile in Hindûstân the jealousy between Holkâr and Sindia led to a battle between the former and Sindia's generals, De Boigne, Perron, Gôpâl Râo, and Lackwa Dâda. This bloody battle was fought at Lakairi, near Âjmîr. Holkâr's army was utterly routed, and retreated to Mâlwâ. In his retreat Holkâr took and burnt Ûjein.

Sindia, thus powerful everywhere, would probably

have succeeded in overthrowing the Brâhman influence altogether, had he not died suddenly at Wanaolî, near Pûna, 12th February, 1794. Death of Mahâdajî Sindia, 1794.

His career was most eventful. The chief Mahratta leader for thirty-three years (comp. § 77), he mediated between the Peshwâ and the English; and at the same time ruled the puppet emperor of Delhi with a rod of iron. His objects were three:—(1.) to aggrandise his own family, and found for it a really independent sovereignty; (2.) to overthrow Brâhman ascendancy in Pûna; (3.) and to maintain unity among the Mahratta princes, so as to make Hindû influence supreme in India. Sindia's policy. Mahâdajî Sindia's plans.

He was succeeded by his grand-nephew Daulat Râo Sindia (table, § 45), then in his fifteenth year (§ 161). This latter chief was not really a Mahratta in feeling; but always regarded himself as the principal sovereign of India. Daulat Râo Sindia, 1794–1827.

§ 111. In Berâr, Mûdajî, the regent, died in 1788, and Raghujî Bhonslê now assumed the dominion (§ 86). His title was Sêna Sahêb Sûbah, or Commander-in-Chief of the Mahratta Empire (§ 150). Nâgpur affairs.

§ 112. In Ahmadâbâd or Barôda, Fatih Gaekwâr died in 1789. His brother, Manaji Râo, became regent for Syajî; but dying in 1793, Govind Râo at last was acknowledged by all parties as regent (§ 122). Barôda affairs.

§ 113. On the coast, piracy, though checked by the expedition of 1756, still continued. The Peshwâ's fleets at Bassein and Vijiadrûg, occasionally annoyed English vessels. At Kolâba, Manajî Angria also committed occasional depredations. Piracy on the western coast.

In Jinjîra, the Sîdîs, though often attacked, maintained their ground, and retained their little dominion, when the power of the Peshwâ had ceased to exist.

There were nests of pirates at Mâlwân and Sâwant-Wâdî; and piracy on the western coast was not finally put down till 1818 (§ 145).

§ 114. Nânâ Farnavîs was now the only Mahratta statesman. The Mahratta confederacy still maintained Disunion and decay, 1794.

the nominal supremacy of the Peshwâ; but the people were losing their adventurous spirit, and each chieftain was gradually becoming independent of any central authority.

The disputes between Nizâm Alî and the Nânâ, regarding arrears of tribute, grew more and more complicated. Sir John Shore (timidly refusing to perform the duties to which the English were pledged by the treaty of 1790) would not interfere. (Ch. x. § 30.) The Nizâm was left to his fate. War was begun in December 1794; but the English ministers at both courts were compelled to remain passive, though impatient, spectators of the struggle.

The last gathering of chiefs.

Under the Peshwâ's banner, *for the last time*, came all the great Mahratta chiefs. Daulat Râo Sindia, Tûkajî Holkâr, Raghujî Bhonslê from Nâgpur; Govind Râo from Barôda; and all the lesser chieftains were there.

The battle of Kûrdlâ, 1795. (50 miles S.E. from Ahmadnagar; surrounded by hills, having one pass on the W.)

At Kûrdlâ (March 1795), a victory was obtained by the Mahrattas, more the result of a panic among the Moguls than of Mahratta bravery. But Nizâm Alî was obliged to treat. An obnoxious minister, Mashîr-ul-Mulk, who had resisted the Mahratta claims, was surrendered. Raymond, a Frenchman, was in command of the Haidarâbâd troops; while Perron was with Sindia's contingent.

(Mâdu Râo Nârâyana, Sixth Peshwâ. Comp. § 87.) The young Peshwâ's re- s after Kurdlâ.

When the Haidarâbâd minister was given up, the young Peshwâ was seen to look sad; being asked the cause by the Nânâ, he replied, "I grieve to see such a degeneracy as there must be, on both sides, when the Moguls can so disgracefully submit, and our troops can vaunt so much of a victory obtained without an effort." The sad, moralising young Peshwâ was just twenty-one years of age.

Large territorial concessions were then made to the Mahrattas, including Daulatâbâd.

Nânâ Farnavis and Raghobâ's sons.

§ 115. The Nânâ was now in the zenith of his power and influence; but he lost his popularity by his treat-

ment of Ragobâ's sons, whom he imprisoned in Sewnerî. Of these Bâjî Râo was the eldest, and was most accomplished, winning in his manners, and a general favourite.

The Nânâ forcibly prevented all intercourse between the Peshwâ and his cousin; and this so irritated the young prince, that he threw himself from a terrace of his palace, and died in two days.

The suicide of Mâdu Râo Nârâyana, THE SIXTH PESHWÂ. Oct. 22, 1795.

Bâjî Râo II. (see table, § 158) succeeded him. But the Nânâ at first proposed that the late Peshwâ's widow should adopt a son, who should be placed on the throne.

(§ 158.)

Bâjî Râo II. The seventh and last Peshwâ.

After endless intrigues, Daulat Râo Sindia and the Nânâ united in the elevation of Bâjî Râo; and in December 1796 he was placed on the Musnud, with Farnavîs once more prime minister. The Nânâ no doubt aimed at gradually setting aside the Peshwâ, as the Peshwâs had superseded the Râjas. He made himself *hereditary Diwân*. But he had no son to take his place.

§ 116. Bâjî Râo II., though of most prepossessing manners and appearance, was a worthless man, fitted to bring to ruin, as he did, the state which had the misfortune to receive him for its ruler. He was the counterpart of Belial in Milton.

His character.

(Paradise Lost. B. II.)

His first endeavour was to rid himself of Daulat Râo Sindia, and of the Nânâ. The former was continually in Pûna, where he over-ruled the young Peshwâ, who determined at any cost to send him back to Hindûstân. But first the ruin of the Nânâ must be effected. It was determined, with the aid of Sindia, to seize him. Pûna for a day and a night was a scene of bloodshed and confusion. The Nânâ was sent a prisoner to Ahmadnagar, while Shîrzî Râo Ghâtgê, father-in-law of Sindia, was made minister; and was allowed to plunder,

Pûna in confusion.

Ghâtgê. (§ 141, 137.)

torture, and kill the inhabitants of Pûna at his pleasure. He was an execrable monster. The Peshwâ was also assisted, in his attempts to free himself, by his adopted brother, Amrit Râo.

Bâjî Râo and the Nânâ Farnavis reconciled.

Sindia himself now wished to return to Hindûstân; but could not find funds to pay his troops, and several battles, resulting from domestic quarrels, took place. The Nânâ was liberated, at the earnest request of Bâjî Râo, who even paid him a midnight visit in disguise, threw himself before the old statesman, and swore that he had never consented to his seizure. The Nânâ again became chief minister.

Nizâm Alî comes under the subsidiary system, 1798.

§ 117. Lord Mornington (Marquess of Wellesley) was now Governor-General. With him Nizâm Alî concluded a treaty, by which he dismissed his French soldiers; received six British battalions; and, in fact, came under the famous *subsidiary system*. (Ch. x. § 16.)

Now came the final war of the English with Tippû. The Peshwâ, who had promised to help the English against Tippû, was secretly laying his plans to aid him, when the sudden intelligence arrived of the capture of Seringapatam, and the death of the Tiger of Mysôr. (Ch. xii. § 54.)

Britain had no rival now in India, except the Mahrattas. That struggle must come!

Tûkajî Holkâr, and his successor, Jeswant Râo Holkâr, 1795. (§ 75.)

§ 118. Tûkajî Holkâr died in 1795. He left four sons. The eldest was imbecile. The second was Mulhâr Râo, who was killed this year in a fray at Pûna; and the third, who was illegitimate, was called JESWANT RÂO. His name among his troops was the "one-eyed." He was a wild and excitable man, with the seeds of madness in his constitution. The curious mixture of childishness, barbarity, and dignity in his character made him excessively popular among the Mahratta soldiery. [§ 140.] He eventually succeeded to the government. Meanwhile he became a great freebooter, and a formidable rival to Sindia. Bhils,

Pindârîs, Mahrattas, and Afghâns now flocked to Indôr, like ill-omened birds of prey. He had soon an army of 70,000 men. It will require the Pindâri war of 1818 to give quiet to these districts.

An adventurer called *George Thomas* (1787-1802) got possession of Hânsi, and was virtually a Râja for some years. He was finally driven out by Perron, and died in obscurity. George Thomas.

§ 119. The eighteenth century closed with universal confusion in Mahratta affairs. Civil war, in which the Râja at Satârâ, the Kolhâpûr chief, Sindia, and the Peshwâ's own officers were engaged, raged throughout the whole country. Mahratta affairs in 1799.

The death of Nânâ Farnavîs, which happened in March 1800, sealed the ruin of the Peshwa's Government. "With him," said the resident, Colonel Palmer, "has departed all the wisdom and moderation of the Mahratta Government." Death of Nânâ Farnavis, 1800.

He was an astute statesman, though personally timid; on the whole, a patriot. He firmly opposed the introduction of the SUBSIDIARY SYSTEM into Pûna; respected and admired the English, but politically regarded them ever with fear and aversion. The Nânâ's character and policy.

§ 120. At this time a fugitive from Seringapatam, called Dundia Wâg, entered the service of the Kolhâpûr Râja; but afterwards left him, and, collecting troops, proceeded to plunder the Carnatic. Major-General the Honourable Arthur Wellesley attacked, pursued, and finally destroyed the freebooter and his troops. Dundia Wâg, 1801. The great Duke of Wellington.

§ 121. In the end of 1800, Sindia returned to Mâlwâ, where several bloody battles were fought between him and Jeswant Râo Holkâr. Daulat Râo Sindia and Jeswant Râo Holkâr.

At this time the Peshwâ cruelly put to death Wittaji Holkâr, who had been long a prisoner in Pûna. (Table, p. 194.)

The infamous Ghâtgê joined his father-in-law, Sindia's army, and under his command the troops gained a complete victory over Holkâr; and the result was the pillage of Indôr, in revenge for that of Ûjein. (§ 110.)

Ahalyâ Bâî's sacred city was laid waste.

Holkâr in Pûna, 1801.

Jeswant Râo was now nearly ruined. Sindia's and the Peshwa's troops gained several great advantages over him; but he, by a skilful march, arrived unexpectedly in the neighbourhood of Pûna, and there gained a decisive victory, October 25, 1801.

The Peshwâ under British protection, 1801.

This battle had the most momentous results. The Peshwâ fled to Singhur, and immediately offered to Colonel Barry Close, the British resident, an engagement to subsidise six battalions of sepoys, and to pay twenty-five lakhs of rupees annually for their support. He eventually passed over to *Bassein*, and put himself under British protection.

Affairs that led to the treaty of Bassein.

The entanglement of affairs was very strange; and it is evident that the ruin of the Mahrattas was inevitable.

Strange entanglement of Mahratta affairs.

The real Râja of the Mahrattas was in Satârâ, a mere puppet. (Table, § 27.) His chief minister and real sovereign, Bâjî Râo II., the seventh Peshwâ, was driven from his capital by his feudatory, Holkâr, with whom another feudatory, Sindia, was at war. The British had to mediate. THE MAHRATTA CONFEDERATION WAS AT AN END. This was 122 years after the death of the founder, the great Sivajî.

Ahmadâbâd or Baroda affairs.

§ 122. Meanwhile at Barôda (which had now become the capital of the Gaekwâr's dominions, instead of Ahmadâbâd), on the death of Govind Râo (§ 112), disputes about the succession compelled the English to interfere. They took the part of Râoji Appâjî, as minister of the heir, Anand Râo (table, § 89), who was of weak intellect.

Comes under the Subsidiary System, 1803.

Baróda was taken, a subsidiary force received, and the state came under the SUBSIDIARY SYSTEM, January 1803. (Comp. § 138.) This was ratified by the Peshwâ in the treaty of Bassein.

Major Walker, a distinguished administrator, became the first resident. Infanticide was abolished, and good order introduced through his wisdom, energy, and benevolence.

Sûrat.

Súrat was finally taken possession of by Governor Duncan in 1799.

§ 123. To return: Holkâr soon began to plunder Pûna, and set up a new Peshwâ, a son of Amrit Râo. This hastened the signing of THE TREATY OF BASSEIN, 31st December, 1802. The Treaty of Bassein, 1802.

This celebrated treaty disunited for ever the Mahrattas, and gave the English complete authority over them. By it the Peshwâ engaged (1.) to admit a subsidiary force, and to pay twenty-six lakhs for its maintenance annually; (2.) to receive no European of any nation hostile to the English into his dominions; (3.) to give up all claims to Sûrat, and to leave his disputes with the Nizâm and the Gaekwâr to British mediation; and (4.) to remain the faithful ally of England. The conditions of the Great Treaty of BASSEIN. The FOURTH Treaty.

Full protection to him and to his territories was in return guaranteed by the British; and this, it will be seen, was not a small matter, nor one easy of accomplishment. Protection, and its price.

Thus did Bâjî Râo II. sacrifice his independence, and that of the race and people; but the blame must rest on the shoulders of the ambitious chieftains, whose dissensions for ever ruined the Mahratta interest. Mahratta independence at an end. The cause of this.

§ 124. We are now approaching the history of the second war of the Mahrattas with the English. (A.D. 1803–1804.) Daulat Râo Sindia and Raghujî Bhonslê were both opposed to the treaty of Bassein, as was natural; and prepared for war. Sooner or later an English war with these chieftains was inevitable. The war caused by the Treaty of Bassein.

General Wellesley had to reinstate the Peshwâ in Pûna, of which Jeswant Râo Holkâr was in possession; Sindia being at Burhânpûr with an army. Raghujî in Berâr was preparing for war.

Two armies were now marched, by the command of the Governor-General. One under his illustrious brother, Major-General Arthur Wellesley, assembled on the northern frontier of Mysôr; and the other, under General Stevenson, consisting of the Haidarâbâd subsidiary force, was encamped at Puṛinda, on the eastern border of the Peshwâ's territory. Wellesley's and Stevenson's armies.

General Wellesley reached Pûna by forced marches,

on the 20th of April. The future Duke had always maintained that India would never know peace till the English were supreme in Pûna.

The Peshwâ reinstated, 1803.

The Peshwâ was reinstated in May. Holkâr then retreated to Mâlwâ, and Stevenson advanced to the Godâvarî to protect the country.

Sindia and Raghujî in opposition to the British.

The two chieftains, Daulat Râo Sindia and Raghujî Bhonslê, still pretended to be well inclined to the British; but demurred to the treaty of Bassein. General Wellesley, to whom the whole authority, political as well as military, had been entrusted, simply required that Sindia should withdraw to Mâlwâ, and Raghujî Bhonslê to Berâr, when he would remove the British troops.

This they refused to do, and the SECOND MAHRATTA WAR began.

Preparations for the second Mahratta war.

§ 125. The Marquess Wellesley at once determined to attack the confederates at every point. He acted as his own minister of war. The British troops were stationed in the following places:—

In the Dakhan.

(1.) GENERAL WELLESLEY had 8,930 men, and was encamped near Ahmadnagar;

(2.) General Stevenson had 7,920 men, on the banks of the Godâvarî;

(Tûmbadhra.)

(3.) General Stewart, with a covering army, was stationed between the Kishtna and Tûngabadra.

In Gujarât.

(4.) In Gujarât there were 7,352 men, under General Murray, holding the various forts; of whom 5,000 were ready for field service.

In Hindûstân.

(5.) In Hindûstân GENERAL LAKE had 10,500 men.

(6.) At Allâhâbâd 8,500 men were ready, under Col. Powell, to act on Bandêlkhand.

In Orissa.

(7.) Under Col. Harcourt, 5,216 men were prepared to march on Kuttack, the extreme eastern point of Raghujî Bhonslê's dominions.

A glance at the map will show how completely the Mahratta powers were thus within the meshes of a mighty net. The whole was arranged by the two wonderful brothers, the Marquess and the future Duke.

The Mahratta forces.

To oppose these were Daulat Râo Sindia's troops and those of Raghujî Bhonslê, consisting of 50,000 horse and 30,000 infantry, commanded by Europeans; numerous and well-served artillery, and a great multitude of irregular troops; but the leaders themselves possessed neither courage nor military skill.

Sindia's troops, and, in fact, all his dominions in Hindûstân, were under M. Perron, who had succeeded the veteran De Boigne. Sindia himself had remained near Pûna from the date of his accession.

Holkâr.

Jeswant Râo Holkâr was in Mâlwâ, plundering, and striving to maintain an appearance of neutrality. He rejoiced at the prospect of the humiliation of his rival Sindia; though he himself hated and feared the British.

The Mahratta strength.

The Mahratta dominion now extended from Delhi to the Câvêrî, and from the mouth of the Mahânadî to the Gulf of Cambay, over a population of 40,000,000.

Their whole armies numbered 210,000 infantry and 100,000 cavalry.

Ahmadnagar taken.

§ 126. The first great blow, promptly delivered, was the capture of *Ahmadnagar*, Sindia's great arsenal, August 12, 1803.

(40 miles E. from Aurungâbâd.

Stevenson took Jâlna, September 9.

Assai, 1803, September 23. (*Assye* or *Assaye.*)

§ 127. The second great blow was the British VICTORY OF ASSAÎ. The whole Mahratta army was now strongly encamped near the villages of Bokerdûn and Jaffîrâbâd. It consisted of 10,000 regular infantry, 100 well-equipped guns, and 40,000 horse.

On 23rd September, Wellesley learned that the confederates were encamped on the Kailnâ, near its

CII. V. § 129, 130. A.D. 1803.

The battle of Assai.

confluence with the Juah; both these streams being tributaries of the Southern Pûrna, which is a main affluent of the Godâvarî. Not far from the fork of the two first rivers is the fortified village of Assaî. He resolved to attack them at once.

The battle of Assai. See map, p. 14.

On the advance of the British troops, the Mahrattas began a terrible cannonade. The 74th Regiment, the 19th Light Dragoons, and the 4th Madras Cavalry, nobly contested the field. Three hundred and sixty men formed the entire 19th; but they and the 4th Madras Cavalry, led by Col. Maxwell, charged the whole Mahratta army, in which were eight of De Boigne's trained battalions.

The bayonet charge.

The enemy's line gave way, driven with great slaughter into the Juah at the point of the bayonet by the advancing line of British infantry, and the battle was won; but *one third of the British troops lay dead upon the field.*

Terrible loss.

The coward leaders.

Daulat Râo Sindia and Raghujî Bhonslê fled from the field early in the day, almost at the first shot.

Stevenson joined Wellesley on the evening of the 24th.

Burhânpûr and Asirghar taken.

§ **128.** The next undertakings were the reduction of the city of Burhânpûr, and of the fort of Asîrghar. These were accomplished (October 21) by Colonel Stevenson.

Sindia had now nothing left in the Dakhan.

The campaign in Gujarât.

§ **129.** In Gujarât, the city of Broach, Sindia's only seaport (§ 102), the fort of Pâwangarh and the town of Champanîr (ch. iii. § 4) were taken (September 17).

Lake's victories, 1803. (Cawnpoor.)

§ **130.** In Hindûstân, General Lake (Biog. Index), with the same powers that Wellesley possessed in the Dakhan, marched from Khânpûr against Sindia's army which was under Perron. (See map, p. 4.)

(1.) He first took Coel and the adjacent fort of Alîghar, August 29. Alîghar had always been regarded as impregnable. The 78th Highlanders took it, with wonderful gallantry, by storm. Two hundred and eighty-one guns were captured in it. — Lake's three months of 1803. (*Coel*, 50 miles N. by E. from Âgra. *Alighar*, 53 miles N. from Âgra.)

(2.) At this time Perron and his staff, who had long been objects of jealousy to the Mahratta officers, retired from Sindia's service. M. Louis Bourquin succeeded Perron. — Perron. — Bourquin.

(3.) This latter met the English under the walls of Delhi, and was defeated in a battle skilfully fought by Lake, September 11. Sîkhs were in the army that opposed Lake on that occasion. — Battle of Delhi.

(4.) Delhi surrendered. The person and family of Shâh Âlam II. thus came into Lord Lake's hands. (Ch. iii. § 24.) So did Britain's power extend in less than fifty years after the battle of Plassey. — The nominal Emperor rescued.

(5.) Bourquin and the other French officers surrendered. — Sindia's French officers.

(6.) Âgra was besieged and taken, October 18. Immense treasure was found there, and promptly distributed among the army. — Âgra taken.

(7.) Lake now set out in pursuit of another wing of Sindia's army (the "*Dakhan Invincibles*"), which retired before him to the hills of Mêwât. He overtook it (November 1), near Lâswarî, and a most severely contested battle was fought. The veterans trained by De Boigne died heroically in the field. The victory was, however, complete; and it laid all Sindia's dominions in Hindûstân, from Delhi and Âgra to the Chambal, at Lake's feet. — The battle of *Láswarí*, November 1, 1803. (75 miles N.W. of Âgra.) — Its consequences.

Thus was this formidable French-Mahratta power for ever broken; at the time that the Mahrattas were undoubtedly the "foremost" people in India.

§ 131. Colonel Harcourt was sent against Kuttack, which he took (October 10). By the 14th of October, — Kuttack.

(Jagat-nâth'ha= *Lord of the earth.*)

the whole district of Kuttack was conquered. The priests of Juggernath hastened to put themselves and their temple under the protection of the British General. The conquest of Orissa seems to have cost £30,000 sterling and fifty men.

Bandêlkhand.

§ 132. Colonel Powell cleared Bandêlkhand. (From September 16 to October 13.)

Shâm Shîr Bahâdar, who had taken possession of the country, was driven out. He was an illegitimate son of the Peshwâ, Bâjî Râo. His son, Alî Bahâdar, was the ancestor of the present Nuwâbs of Banda. (Table, § 158.)

Argâom.

§ 133. In the Dakhan, negotiations for peace were entered into by the Mahratta chiefs, but in a vacillating and deceitful manner.

November 28.

Wellesley, following up the Nâgpur army, now attacked the confederates at Argâom, and gained a complete victory.

Gâwilgarh (15 miles N.W. from Ellichpûr).

Gâwilgarh, a celebrated stronghold of the Râja of Berâr, was taken December 15, by Colonel Stevenson. This strong fortress is on a high hill between the sources of the Taptî and the Northern Pûrna rivers.

Treaty with the Râja of Nâgpur. The peace of DEOGAON. The FIFTH Mahratta treaty. Its conditions. (Intro., § 20.)

§ 134. On 17th December, Raghujî Bhonslê, utterly discomfited, signed a treaty, by which—

(1.) He ceded Kuttack and Balasôr; (Comp. § 62.)

(2.) He gave up all his territory west of the N. Warda (the great cotton-fields), and south of the range of hills on which Gâwilgarh stands; (comp. ch. iii. § 16 (12), p. 134.)

(3.) He agreed to submit to British arbitration all disputes between himself, the Nizâm, and the Peshwâ; and

(4.) He engaged to admit no foreigners hostile to Great Britain into his service.

This is called the TREATY OF DÊOGÂOM. The Honourable Mountstuart Elphinstone (one of the most celebrated of British-Indian statesmen, who afterwards twice declined the office of Governor-General) was the first resident at the Nâgpur court.

Mountstuart Elphinstone. (§ 144, 165.)

§ 135. Very reluctantly, on the 30th December 1803, did Daulat Râo Sindia also sign a treaty, by which he ceded to the English all his territory between the Jamna and the Ganges; all north of Jeypûr, Jôdhpûr, and Gôhud; the forts of Ahmadnagar and Broach and their districts; all between the Ajunta Ghâts and the Godâvarî.

Sindia makes peace. The treaty of Sirji Anjengâom. The SIXTH great Mahratta treaty.

Major (Sir) John Malcolm was the first resident at Sindia's court. This is called the TREATY OF SIRJÎ ANJENGÂOM.

Malcolm. (§ 154, 166.) (Ch. xii. § 56.)

Sindia, in February 1804, agreed to come completely under Lord Wellesley's subsidiary system. The treaty was signed at Burhânpûr.

§ 136. Treaties were also made with the Râjput chiefs of Jeypûr, Jôdhpûr, Bûndî, and Machêri; the Jât Râja of Bhartpûr, the Râna of Gôhud, and Ambajî Inglia, who had obtained a portion of the Gôhud territory.

Other minor treaties.

Most of the Râjpût chiefs had been subdued by Holkâr and Sindia, and had suffered greatly.

Thus ended *the Second Mahratta War*.

It really lasted about four months. Skilful combination, vigour, and bravery mark every operation. (Comp. Chronological Index, 1803.)

§ 137. The British had now (1804) three armies in the field: one at Jaffîrâbâd; one at Pûna; and one, under Lord Lake, in Hindûstân.

War with Jeswant Râo Holkâr.

The two former were preserving peace in the newly

assigned districts; and the last was watching Jeswant Râo Holkâr, who was ravaging Hindûstân, and had taken into his pay the disbanded soldiers of Sindia and the Râja of Berâr.

Holkâr's lawless proceedings.

This chieftain, after many negotiations, proceeded to plunder Âjmîr, and to threaten the Râjpûts under British protection. He demanded also cessions of territory, and it became evident that war with him was inevitable. An army of 80,000 men attended him in his forays. It has been truly said that, "where Holkâr's sword and brand had passed, the ground was like that which the demon had trodden, where no grass would evermore grow." It was necessary that this predatory horde should be scattered.

This supplementary war began in April 1804, and lasted till December 1805. Holkâr was the declared antagonist; but Sindia also was involved in it. It was ended by an unsatisfactory and hollow peace.

The third Mahratta war, 1804, 1805.

It may be called the *Third Mahratta War*. We shall give a summary only of the events connected with it.

1804.

(1.) The fort of Tonk Râmpûra was stormed, May 16. Indôr was taken by Colonel Murray, August 24.

Monson's defeat. (Intro., § 36.) (See map, p. 28.)

(2.) Colonel Monson was driven from the Mukhundra Pass to Delhi, losing his guns and baggage, and many of his troops, July 8–August 31. This almost rivals the Convention of Wârgâom (§ 97), or the defeat of Baillie. (Ch. xii. § 27). The disgrace was soon wiped off.

Battle of Dig, 1804. (57 miles N.W. from Âgra.) Fatihghar. (On the W. bank of the Ganges, 90 miles N.W. from Lucknow. Map, p. 6.)

(3.) This emboldened Holkâr to attack Delhi; but he was nobly repulsed by Colonel Ochterlony, the resident, October 8–14.

(4.) General Frazer and Colonel Monson gained a complete victory at Dîg. General Frazer fell, November 13. Colonel Monson took eighty-seven guns, among which were fourteen that he had lost.

(5.) General Lake fell upon Holkâr's troops at Fatihghar, and cut them up, November 17.

Siege of Dig.

(6.) Lake besieged Dîg, which was stormed, December 23. Sir C. Metcalfe, then a young civilian, was present as a volunteer at this siege. (Ch. x. § 105.)

Holkâr's utter humiliation. (*Galna*, a strong

(7.) Thus all Holkâr's forts, Chanda, Galna, and his capital, Indôr, had been captured. He had, in fact, lost all he possessed in Mâlwâ, as well as in the Dakhan.

(8.) Dîg and Bhartpûr belonged to the Jât Râja, who had behaved treacherously to his allies the British, having aided and encouraged Holkâr. (Map of Râjpûtâna, p. 28.)

hill-fort, 87 miles N.W. from Aurungâbâd.)

(9.) Bhartpûr was now rashly and inconsiderately besieged. (January 2, 1805.) It is a fortified town, six or eight miles in circumference, surrounded by a very lofty mud wall, and was regarded as impregnable by the Hindûs. The Râja was resolute in his defence, and Lord Lake was not prepared for such a siege. Four assaults failed.

First siege of Bhartpûr, 1805. (31 miles W. by N. from Âgra.)

Lake utterly unprepared for such a siege.

Meanwhile Holkâr and his friends were surprised and cut up on every side by General Lake and his active officers.

On the 16th April, the Bhartpûr Râja came to terms; and, though the city had not been taken, paid twenty lakhs of rupees, and renounced Holkâr's alliance.

The Jât Râja comes to terms.

This was certainly a gain; but the ill-success of the siege left a bad impression, which was not removed till Lord Combermere took the city in January 1826. (Ch. x. § 81.)

Bad effect of this failure.

(10.) Daulat Râo Sindia broke faith after the death of his great minister, *Wittal Pant*; seized Mr. Jenkins, the assistant resident; and with his father-in-law, the infamous Ghâtgê, and Ambaji Inglia, espoused, though not quite openly, Holkâr's cause; being annoyed, and justly so, at the denial to him of Gwâliôr and Gôhud.

Unfaithfulness of Daulat Râo Sindia.

(11.) Now came the second appointment of Lord Cornwallis, July 30, 1805. His mission was to restore peace at any sacrifice! Lord Lake unwillingly conducted the negotiations, which were to make his victories vain. (Ch. x. § 49.)

Lord Cornwallis.

Peace at any price!

(12.) A new treaty was made with Sindia, on the basis of that of Sirji Anjengâom. Gôhud and Gwâliôr were taken from the Râna of Gôhud, who was unfit for government (§ 135), and made over to Sindia.

Treaty with Sindia.

Thus Sindia was conciliated. The magnificent fortress of Gwâliôr has ever since belonged to the Sindia family. (Introd. p. 7.)

The Gôhud Râna was to be supported by revenues assigned by Sindia. The pergunnahs of Dholapûr, Bâri, and Râjakera, were given to Râna Kirut Singh, and have since formed the Jât Chiefship of Dholapûr. (Intro., § 36.)

The Râna of Gwâliôr.

The chief of Dholapûr.

Jeswant Râo Holkâr was driven by Lord Lake into the Panjâb, where he obtained no assistance from the Sîkhs. He sued for peace, and, fortunately for him, Sir G. Barlow's (ch. x. § 50-53) policy permitted him to obtain it on ludicrously easy terms. (November 1805.)

Peace with Jeswant Râo Holkâr.

One thing is to be especially deplored here. The Râja of Bûndî, and other Râjpût chieftains, who had been faithful allies

British desertion of the lesser chiefs.

of the English, were left, unprotected, to "the moderation and good faith," that is, to the vengeance, of Holkâr and Sindia. This Lord Lake earnestly deprecated, but in vain. Metcalfe, too, remonstrated in emphatic language.

Of course, troubles must again arise with these Mahratta chiefs. Mehîdpûr, and the events of 1818, will be required to bring these affairs to a satisfactory termination. (§ 151.)

The treaty of Barôda.

§ 138. The treaty of Barôda, April 1805, finally brought the Gaekwâr under the subsidiary system. This treaty was precisely similar to that of Bassein. (Comp. § 122.)

(Sir G. Barlow, 1805–1807. Ch. x. § 49.)

PART VI.—Events subsequent to 1805. The Decadence of the Mahratta States.

§ 139. We are now approaching the last period of Mahratta history.

The downfall of the Mahrattas.

The causes of the decline and fall of the Mahrattas were, as we have seen:—

(§ 103.)

(1.) The excessive aggrandisement of Mahâdajî Sindia, making him independent of the Peshwâ; and, in fact, a rival to him. His example was not lost on the other Mahratta chieftains.

Disunion. (§ 82.)

(2.) The dissensions consequent on the death of Nârâyana Râo, with the quarrels and rivalries of Ragobâ, Nânâ Farnavîs, Bâjî Râo II., Jeswant Râo Holkâr, and Daulat Râo Sindia, completely disintegrated the confederation.

Differences of caste.

(3.) Moreover, the confederation had within itself elements of disunion, and consequent weakness. The Peshwâ and his councillors were Brâhmans; Sindia and Holkâr were Sûdras; Raghujî Bhonslé was a Kshetriya (§ 45).

The English now supreme in Delhi.

(4.) Shâh Âlam II. was now in the power of the British. Under the shadow of the new paramount power, the corruption and disorder which favoured the rise of the Mahrattas could not exist. (Ch. iii. § 24.)

§ 140. Jeswant Râo Holkâr, after committing many atrocities (table, p. 194), went mad in 1808, and died so in 1811. His State was now in a condition of extreme disorder. It was administered by Tulsî Bâî, a concubine of Jeswant Râo Holkâr, in the name of Mulhâr Râo Holkâr, an illegitimate son of that chief. The army had become totally unmanageable. Death of Jeswant Râo Holkâr. Disorders in Indôr. (Comp. § 160.)

§ 141. In 1810, Daulat Râo Sindia made Gwâliôr his head-quarters. His father-in-law, Ghâtgê, died that year, having been killed while resisting an order for his arrest. The influence of this ruffian on Daulat Râo Sindia was most pernicious. He was a determined enemy of the British power. Sindia in Gwâliôr.

§ 142. The name of *Amîr Khân*, "a vulgar and ferocious copy of Holkâr," appears frequently in the history of this period. He was an Afghân adventurer, who aided Jeswant Râo Holkâr in his early struggles (1800), became his greatest general, took the control of affairs during his insanity, and was bent on establishing himself in Râjpûtâna (1809). (§ 148–153.) Amîr Khân. (§ 153.) ("Meer Khân.")

A great contest arose among the Râjpût princes for the hand of *Krishna Kumârî*, the beautiful daughter of the Râna of Oudipûr. In the course of this, Mân Sing of Jôdhpûr sustained a terrible defeat. Amîr Khân fomented these quarrels; and even induced the Râna of Oudipûr to murder his daughter, on whose account these quarrels had arisen. With her own hand the lovely princess took the bowl of poison offered to her by her father, and saying, "This is the marriage to which I was foredoomed," drank it off. Krishna Kumârî.

With Amîr Khân there were many contests.

§ 143. We return to Pûna. From 1803 to 1810, Colonel Sir Barry Close was Resident there. Bâjî Râo was full of hatred to the English, while sensible of the Bâjî Râo II. (§ 116.)

His utter want of trustworthiness.

strength which their troops gave him. He professed the utmost cordiality, but intrigued with Sindia; and his great delight was to humble and oppress the families that had been opposed to his party. He had never ceased to regret the treaty of Bassein. He was not destitute of ability; but was intriguing, superstitious, and avaricious.

Elphinstone in Púna. (Lord Minto, 1807-1813.)

His influence among the natives.

§ 144. In 1811, the Honourable Mountstuart Elphinstone (§ 134), who had been on General Wellesley's staff in 1803, and who had recently returned from his celebrated mission to Kâbul (ch. x. § 69), was appointed Resident at the Peshwâ's court. He knew the people and the work, and had much direct personal intercourse with the natives.

Piracy put down.

§ 145. In 1811, while various arrangements were made for the settlement of the southern Mahratta country, the Râja of Kolhâpûr ceded the harbour of Malwân to the British, with the islands of Malwân and Sindidrûg; and engaged to renounce and discourage piracy, which was thus finally put down.

The Dessâî of Sâwant-Wâdî made over Vingorla with a similar object (§ 113).

Trimbakjî Dainglia.

His infamous character.

§ 146. We are now introduced (1813) to the man whose connection with the Peshwâ consummated the ruin of the Mahrattas. *Trimbakjî Dainglia* was a spy, and had risen, by every infamous compliance, to the position of chief favourite of Bâjî Râo, who found in him a kindred spirit. This man hated Europeans, and laboured with success to impress his master with the idea that he could restore the Mahratta power to the state in which it was under the first great Peshwâs. His cruelty and violence in the exercise of the office of prime-minister, which he soon obtained, were unbounded. The government was now exceedingly corrupt and oppressive.

His plans.

Bâjî Râo was induced by this wretched man to open communications with Sindia, Holkâr, and Raghujî Bhonslê; and his design was to restore the Mahratta confederacy.

Disputes between Bâji Râo II. and the Gaekwâr.

(Lord Moira, 1814–1823.)

§ 147. The province of Gujarât was then much under British influence. The Resident was Colonel Walker, and his measures delivered it from anarchy. (See § 122.) There were disputes between Bâjî Râo and the Gaekwâr's Government, regarding debts due to the Pûna court, and Gangâdhar Sâstrî was sent to discuss the matter. The Sâstrî, a Brâhman, was assassinated by Trimbakjî's agents, with Bâjî Râo's concurrence, at the sacred shrine of Panderpûr. This outrage filled every mind with horror. Mr. Elphinstone required the punishment of the assassin; and Trimbakjî was confined in the fort of Tanna, on the island of Salsette. From thence he escaped, through the contrivance of a Mahratta horse-keeper, who, while cleaning his master's horse outside the fort, sang the whole plan of escape to the prisoner within: another Blondel to a strange Cœur-de-Lion.* Trimbakjî was now supplied secretly with money by the Peshwâ, and proceeded to raise troops and to organise an insurrection with the design of driving the British from the country.

The assassination of the Sâstrî.

(On the left bank of the Bima, 110 miles S.E. from Pûna.)

History of Trimbakji.

His escape. September 1816. (§ 158.)

Mr. Elphinstone's efforts in Pûna.

Mr. Elphinstone, with the utmost forbearance, prudence, and firmness, tried to bring Bâjî Râo to a better

* Bishop Heber, who saw him in his prison in after days, says:—"The groom's singing was made up of verses like the following:—

'Behind the bush the foemen hide,
The horse beneath the tree;
Where shall I find a knight will ride
The jungle paths with me?

There are five-and-fifty coursers there,
And four-and-fifty men;
When the fifty-fifth shall mount his steed,
The Dakhan thrives again.'"

mind, and to induce him to retrace his steps. It was, however, necessary, at last, to assume a most decided tone. A new treaty was prepared circumscribing his power, and Bâjî was compelled to sign it (1817). Ahmadnagar was ceded to the English. Trimbakjî was to be given up; but he managed to elude his pursuers.

Bâjî Râo coerced.

July 5, 1817.

The Marquess of Hastings (Moira), 1813–1823.

§ 148. The Marquess of Hastings (Earl Moira, ch. x. § 73) had succeeded (October 1813); and it became evident that the Patâns, under Amîr Khân (§ 142), and the Pindârîs must be put down.

The Pindâris.

Their origin.

The *Pindâris* were a collection of the lowest free-booters, the very refuse of all the lawless, predatory hordes that infested the Dakhan. They had followed, like obscene beasts of prey, the armies of the early Mahratta chieftains, by whom assignments of land had been made to them along the banks of the Narbaddah.

Mulhâr R. Holkâr had given them a golden flag.

Their leaders, Kharim Khân and Chitu.

(§ 142.)

Their first conspicuous leader was *Kharîm Khân* (a Rohilla by birth), who had been imprisoned by Sindia in Gwâliôr, and was not released till 1810. Another was *Chitu* (by birth a Jât), who was kept in confinement by Amîr Khân till 1816; and who was their ablest chief.

The nature and method of their expeditions.

Armed with Mahratta spears, every fifteenth man having a matchlock, and about two-fifths of them well armed and mounted, these dastardly brigands sallied forth, plundering, burning villages, torturing the people, and committing every imaginable excess.

When the Mahratta chieftains ceased to be engaged in endless wars, these Pindârîs lost their occupation, as jackals attending those expeditions. They now began plundering on their own account, and gradually increased the field of their operations, and the daring

of their exploits. Their army in 1812 did not fall short of 60,000 horsemen. The Pindâris.

§ 149. The beginning of the war in Nîpâl was unfavourable to the English. (Ch. x. § 74.) This encouraged the Mahrattas to contemplate the renewal of their confederacy. They therefore secretly abetted the Pindârîs and Patâns in their excesses, though the time had not come for any open hostilities on their part. Their opportunity. Secret encouragement.

§ 150. In March 1816, Vazîr Muhammad, Râja of Bhôpâl, and Raghujî Bhonslê of Berâr died. (See table, p. 198.) Changes in Berâr and Bhôpâl.

Parsajî succeeded in Nâgpûr; but being idiotic, his cousin, Appâ Sahêb became regent. March 22, 1816.

With him a treaty was made, by which the Nâgpûr state came fully under the *subsidiary system*. Yet he, too, was secretly in the conspiracy, of which Bâjî Râo II. was the head, against the English supremacy. (§ 154, 159.) Nâgpûr fully under the subsidiary system.

§ 151. Now came on what we may call the FOURTH MAHRATTA WAR. It really lasted from October 1817, to February 18, 1818; though all the forts were not taken till April, 1819. Arrangements for the Pindârî war, October 16, 1817.

The chief battles were:—

A. Kirkî (§ 154), November 5, 1817;
B. Nâgpûr (§ 159), November 26, 1817;
C. Mehîdpûr (§ 160), December 21, 1817;
D. Korigâom (§ 155), January 1, 1818;
E. Ashta (§ 157), February 19, 1818.

The Marquess of Hastings, in 1817, resolved to put down finally, not only the Pindârîs, but all the predatory powers of Central India. This was required by humanity, not less than by policy. The Nizâm's dominions, and the Northern Sirkârs, were invaded and pillaged by the Pindârîs, who had thus thrown down the (§ 148.) Necessity of the Pindârî war.

gauntlet, and the Governor-General was bound to take it up.

The treaties of 1805 had been virtually annulled by the intrigues of Sindia and Holkâr, and by their constant violation of them. The courts of both of these chiefs were scenes of intrigue and disorder. Their armies were utterly lawless and rebellious. Non-interference had been tried, and it had signally failed.

The troops.

The Governor-General's plan was to surround the infested districts with troops, and thus to hem in and destroy the ravagers and their allies. Lord Hastings himself left Calcutta early in July, 1817, for the scene of conflict.

Five divisions of troops were in the field under Sir Thomas Hislop. One division was stationed in Gujarât. Four divisions, under the personal command of the Marquess himself, marched from Bengâl; and a reserve force was posted at Adwânî. Contingents were left at Pûna, Haiderâbâd, and Nâgpûr.

(Here is the best ford.)

Sir Thomas Hislop was to advance into Mâlwâ, crossing the Nerbudda at *Hindia*. A force from Nâgpûr was to advance by Hoshungâbâd. The others were stationed in Berar; and in Kândêsh; at Rewâri, Âgra, Sikandra, and Kalinjîr. The Gujarât force was to enter Mâlwâ by Dôhud. Other troops were on the Upper Sône, and on the Upper Narbaddah. (See map, Introd. § 12.) The whole British force amounted to 116,000 men, having 300 guns.

Sindia.

§ 152. The Governor-General first took up his position with the main army near Gwâliôr, where Sindia was compelled to sign a treaty, by which he engaged fully to co-operate with the British in restoring peace and order, by the extermination of all the predatory hordes: a measure of which he especially was to reap the fruits. This was completed on the very day of Bâjî Râo's

attack on the Residency. (§ 154.) Sindia's co-operation was very insincere and tardy; but he was effectually prevented from openly joining in the war.

§ 153. *Amîr Khân* now made an agreement by which his Jaghîr was guaranteed to him, and he consented to disband his lawless troops. Amîr Khân.

The family still possess Tonk. His grandson, Muhammad Alî Khân, succeeded to power in 1864. (Introd. § 36.)

Many other chieftains of Râjpûtâna and Central India put themselves fully under British protection, which was freely afforded them. Among these were Zalim Sing of Kôta, the Râjas of Bhôpâl, Bûndî, Jôdhpûr, Oudipûr, and Jeypûr. Sir C. Metcalfe was then Resident at Delhi, and arranged the treaties with these chieftains. (Introd. § 24.)

§ 154. Sir John Malcolm was appointed the agent of the Governor-General, with ample political powers, in the Dakhan. Bâjî Râo deceived Sir John by his protestations; but Mr. Elphinstone was thoroughly convinced of his treacherous designs. Malcolm. Bâjî Râo treacherous.

Now we must relate what may be considered to be the first great episode of the Pindârî war: the outbreak at Pûna.

The Peshwâ was even then maturing his plans for an attack on the Residency. Mr. Elphinstone, aware of his duplicity, would give him no pretext for a rupture, by any open preparations, or by an exhibition of distrust. The Peshwâ's troops were gathering round and hemming in the British. Mr. Elphinstone, from the terrace of the Residency, could hear the din of their preparations; but with quiet dignity he made only such unostentatious arrangements as the merest prudence demanded. He brought the British troops together to Kirkî, four miles from Pûna. Bâjî Râo had determined to spare no one of the whole British residents except two persons: Dr. Coats, who had cured him of an illness, and Major Ford, the commandant. The attack on the Pûna Residency, November 5, 1817. Elphinstone's coolness. Massacre planned.

The Peshwâ's prime-minister and commander-in-chief was Bappu Goklâ (nephew of an officer called Dhundû Pant), a chivalrous and honourable officer, the last of the great Mahratta warriors. (§ 157.)

The battle of Kirki. Nov. 5, 1817.

When it was evident that the attack was about to begin, Mr. Elphinstone withdrew to Kirkî; and a battle ensued between the Mahratta army, which consisted of 18,000 horse, and 8,000 foot, with fourteen guns, and Major Ford's troops, consisting of 2,800 rank and file, of whom 800 were Europeans.

English victory.

The Mahrattas were easily defeated and driven off. The Peshwâ, however, plundered the Residency; murdered several officers who were seized while travelling; and committed other acts of barbarous cruelty.

Bâjî Râo pursued.

§ 155. General Smith, who was encamped near the Chanda hills, now marched on Pûna. Bâjî Râo fled before him. The English general occupied the city, and then pursued the Peshwâ, who fled to Mâhulî (Mowlee), a sacred place near Satârâ, at the confluence of the Yêna and Kishtna, then to Pandarpûr, then to the north of Junîr (where, having been joined by Trimbakjî, he fortified himself at Bâmanwârî), and finally to the south. There the Râja of Satârâ (§ 94) and his family joined the English general.

(40 miles N.E. from Púna.)

Meanwhile a battalion, consisting of about 500 men, belonging to the 1st Regiment, was sent for from Serûr by Colonel Barr, who then commanded in Pûna.

The heroic defence of Korigâom, January 1, 1818. (Or *Corregaum*, on the Bima, 17 miles E.N.E. from Púna.)

It marched on the 21st December, 1817, attended by 300 irregular horse, all under the command of Captain Francis Staunton. On reaching Korigâom (January 1, 1818), they found 25,000 Mahratta horse on the opposite bank of the Bîma. These, with 5,000 of the Peshwâ's infantry, attacked the British troops, who were exhausted by a long night-march, were without food or

water, and compelled to fight under a blazing sun. The conflict raged all day, and at nightfall the Peshwâ's army retreated. The Peshwâ himself, from a height two miles distant, beheld the fight. The heroic Captain Staunton lost 175 men in killed and wounded; but the Mahrattas lost about 600 men.

This was the most heroic event of the war: the *famous defence of Korigâom.*

§ **156.** The Peshwâ now fled towards the Carnatic. On the banks of the Gutpurbâ he found General Thomas Munro, commissioner of those ceded districts (afterwards Governor of Madras), with troops raised on the spot, ready to oppose him. He then fled towards Shôlapûr.

Bâjî Râo pursued.

Munro. (Ch. iii. § 16.)

§ **157.** On February 10, 1818, Satârâ was taken. The next day the Bhagwa Jenda (or swallow-tail flag of Sivajî) was hoisted; and a proclamation was issued, declaring that Bâjî Râo and his family were excluded from all share in the government, which was assumed by the Governor-General, reserving a small tract around Satârâ for the comfortable and dignified maintenance of the Râja.

Satârâ occupied.

The decisive battle, where Goklâ fell, was fought at *Ashta*, between Shôlapûr and Panderpûr, February 19.

Battle of Ashta.

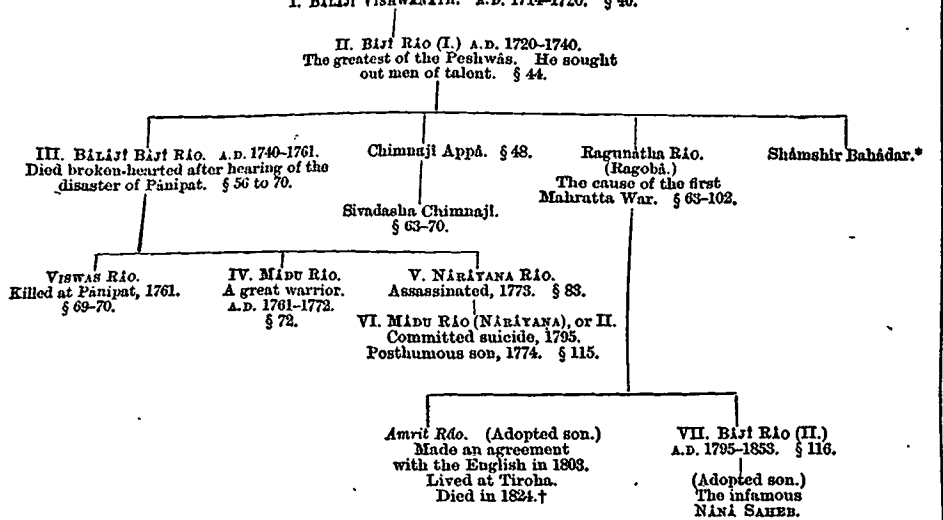
Thus fell the house of Bâlâjî Vishwanâth, which from 1714 (contemporary with the English house of Brunswick) had in reality swayed the Mahratta sceptre. (See table, p. 236.)

The Peshwâs from 1714 to 1818.

§ **158.** Bâjî Râo, after wandering about with his army, suffering great privations, and looking vainly for help from the Mahratta chiefs, themselves in great straits, surrendered to Sir John Malcolm, who guaran-

Bâjî Râo surrenders.

§ 158*. THE SEVEN PESHWÂS.—Chap. V. § 40–157: 1714 to 1818.


I. Bâlâji Vishwanâth. A.D. 1714–1720. § 40.
II. Bâji Râo (I.) A.D. 1720–1740. The greatest of the Peshwâs. He sought out men of talent. § 44.
III. Bâlâji Bâji Râo. A.D. 1740–1761. Died broken-hearted after hearing of the disaster of Pânipat. § 56 to 70.
Chimnaji Appâ. § 48.
Ragunâtha Râo. (Ragobâ.) The cause of the first Mahratta War. § 63–102.
Shâmshir Bahâdar.*
Sivadasha Chimnaji. § 63–70.
Vishwas Râo. Killed at Pânipat, 1761. § 69–70.
IV. Mâdu Râo. A great warrior. A.D. 1761–1772. § 72.
V. Nârâyana Râo. Assassinated, 1773. § 83.
VI. Mâdu Râo (Nârâyana), or II. Committed suicide, 1795. Posthumous son, 1774. § 115.
Amrit Râo. (Adopted son.) Made an agreement with the English in 1803. Lived at Tiroha. Died in 1824.†
VII. Bâji Râo (II.) A.D. 1795–1853. § 116.
(Adopted son.) The infamous Nâna Saheb.

* He was the son of a Muhammadan concubine. His descendants were the titular Nuwâbs of *Banda*. In 1804 a pension of four lakhs of rupees was given him. This was forfeited by his descendant *Ali Bahâdar*, who joined in the rebellion of 1857. He was sent to Indôr. § 132.

† His grandsons joined in the rebellion of 1857. The younger is now in Bareilly, a ward of the British Government, having a pension of 30,000 rupees a year.

teed him the princely pension of eight lakhs of rupees per annum.

Bîtûr, near Khânpûr, was assigned as his residence. There he died in January 1853. The sequel of his history.

Trimbakjî managed to evade his pursuers, till he was seized by Lieutenant Swanston; and was retained a prisoner to the period of his death, in the fort of Chunâr, on the Ganges. (§ 147.)

Bâjî Râo had no sons. He adopted Sirik Dhundû Pant (§ 154), commonly called the Nânâ Sahêb. This man, infamous for the Khânpûr massacres (ch. x. § 172), perished (as is supposed) in the Nîpal jungles.

Thus ended the line of the Peshwâs.

§ 159. *Appâ Sahêb* (§ 150), (sometimes called Mûdajî Bhonslê), regent of Nâgpûr, procured the murder of Parsajî (though this was not then known), and so succeeded him. Nâgpûr affairs. (He would be Mûdajî II., comp. § 86.)

He determined to abet the Peshwâ in his treacherous schemes. Mr. Jenkins was then resident.

It was the fortune of several of the great administrators of British India to be distinguished also in the field. Elphinstone, Jenkins, and Malcolm were conspicuous in these wars for coolness and military skill.

The vacillating and timid Appâ Sahêb did not show his real colours till November 24. He was not aware then that the Peshwâ had made his attack, and failed, but a few days before (November 5).

Mr. Jenkins had about 1,400 men fit for duty. Appâ Sahêb's troops were about 18,000. Thus the Mahratta army was more than twelve times that of the British.

The Residency was at Sîtabaldî, two hills to the west of Nâgpûr. The Mahratta attack was foiled chiefly by the gallantry of Colonel Hopeton Scott and Captain Fitzgerald. It began on the evening of November 26, The attack on the Nâgpûr residency, Nov. 26.

and was not finally repulsed till about noon the next day. In gallantry it almost equalled Korigâom.

The battle of Nâgpûr.

Reinforcements soon arrived under General Doveton, and Appâ Sahêb surrendered. The fort of Nâgpûr, still held by the Arab mercenaries, was stormed. Appâ was reinstated with the most stringent provisions for his fidelity to the British power; but, beginning almost immediately to intrigue again, was arrested by Mr. Jenkins, and sent, by command of the Governor-General, to be imprisoned at Allâhâbâd; but he escaped on the road, joined Chîtu the Pindârî chief, was in the fort of Asirghar when it was taken (§ 162); and after many wanderings took refuge with the Sîkhs, and finally found his way to Jôdhpûr, where he lived and died in utter obscurity (1840).

Continued treachery of the Râja. The end of Appâ Sahêb.

Settlement of Nâgpûr.

A grandson of the late Raghujî Bhonslê was put on the Musnud, assuming his grandfather's name.

Its prosperity. Treaty.

From this time Nâgpûr may be considered to have been under British government; and owing to the wise management of Mr. Jenkins, the Resident, it flourished greatly.

A treaty was signed by this Râja, when he attained his majority in 1826, renouncing all dependence upon the Râja of Satârâ, and all connection with that prince or any other Mahratta power; and confirming in all essential particulars the former subsidiary treaty made with Appâ Sahêb.

Annexation of Nâgpûr, 1853. (Comp. ch. x. § 144.)

Raghujî dying in 1853 without issue, his dominions were annexed.

Under successive British commissioners the whole district has since attained unprecedented prosperity. (Comp. pp. 8, 9.)

The defeat of the Pindâris.

§ 160. We must return from these two episodes, recording the fortunes of the last Peshwâ, and of the Nâgpûr Râj, to the *Pindâris*.

They were under three leaders: Chîtu, Kharîm Khân, and Wasîl Muhammad (§ 148).

This last was the son of Hîra, a distinguished Pindârî leader under Mahâdajî Sindia.

Sir John Malcolm, in concert with the generals of the other divisions, gradually drove them from their haunts across the Nerbudda.

Chîtu finally took refuge in Holkâr's camp, near *Mehidpûr*, on the right bank of the Sîpra. Tulsî Bâî, the regent (§ 140), had at length been compelled by the chiefs around her to join the confederacy against the British; and had marched to that place, where a great and decisive battle was fought. Battle of Mehidpûr, 1817, or *Mahcidpûr*.

Tulsî Bâî was put to death by her troops, because they suspected her of a design to treat with the English. She was a woman of great beauty, tact, and intellect; but vindictive and dissolute. Tulsi Bâi.

Mulhâr Râo Holkâr's troops were now about 20,000 in number, and were encamped on the Sîpra, a tributary of the Chambal. They were a splendid body of cavalry, full of enthusiasm. Sir J. Hislop and Sir John Malcolm crossed the river, attacked the enemy's strong position, carried it, dispersed them, and gained a complete victory, December 21, 1817. The battle of MEHIDPÛR.

At Mundisôr (or Mandêshwar), in Râjpûtâna, January 6, 1818, a treaty between the young Mulhâr Râo Holkâr and the Governor-General was signed. By this treaty he abandoned all authority over the Râjpûts, and placed himself absolutely under British protection, thus securing his territories and his dignity. Treaty of MUNDISÔR. The SEVENTH great Mahratta Treaty.

Mulhâr Râo Holkâr died childless in 1833, at the age of twenty-eight. The Holkâr family.

After some disputes, Harî Râo Holkâr, son of a brother of Jeswant Râo, was installed at Indôr, March 1834. He died in 1843. His adopted son, Khandî Râo (no relation), died the following year. Tûkajî Râo II. then succeeded. He attained his majority in 1852.

§ 161. Daulat Râo Sindia, overawed by the near approach of Lord Hastings' army, remained quiet, and Sindia's history. See table, § 45*.

there is nothing more of importance to record of him. He retained his dominions in peace.

The sequel of the history of the Sindia family.

He died in March 1827, after a reign of thirty-four years.

His adopted son, Jankojî, succeeded; but quarrels between him and Baija Bâî, widow of Sindia, and daughter of the infamous Ghâtgê (§ 141), increased by the indecision of Lord W. Bentinck, ended in the expulsion of the Bâî.

For the conclusion of the history of Gwâliôr, see chap. x. § 124.

The Pindâri leaders.

§ 162. Of the three Pindârî leaders, Kharîm Khân surrendered to Sir J. Malcolm in February 1818; Wasîl Muhammad gave himself up to Sindia, and subsequently poisoned himself; and Chîtu only remained. He was driven from one place to another, his followers gradually forsaking him, until he was devoured by a tiger in the jungles near Asîrghar.

The death of Chîtu.

Asîrghar.

The fort of Asîrghar itself, however, was not taken by General Doveton until April 9, 1819. This was the last exploit in the war; here the Mahrattas made their final effort.

Summary of the results of the war.

Thus in about four months (from October 1817 to February 1818) had the Pindâris been destroyed; the armies of Holkâr, of the Peshwâ, and of Nâgpûr routed; the whole of Central India brought fully under British authority; and, in fact, the Mahratta empire finally extinguished.

Thirty hill-fortresses were taken in a few weeks. This war was remarkable for the vigour with which the various hostile bands were followed up, and driven from all their fastnesses.

Conclusion of the third Mahratta war.

§ 163. The conclusion of the Pindârî war was marked by a general arrangement with the lesser chiefs, whom the Mahrattas had hitherto oppressed, bringing them under British protection. These affairs were managed by Sir D. Ochterlony with great tact and discretion.

(Introd. § 24.)

The Râja of Bûndî (§ 136), the Râja of Bhôpâl (§ 96), and those of Jeypûr and Jôdhpûr, were among the chiefs who received additional territory.

Âjmîr and Mairwarra were made over to the English.

The settlement of the Mahratta country.

§ 164. After the surrender of Bâjî Râo, the Râja of Satârâ was, with great pomp, restored, and seated on the throne by the British authorities.

The Râja of Satârâ restored, April 11, 1818.

He immediately issued a proclamation, making over the government to Captain Grant Duff, the author of the "Mahratta History." He complained bitterly of Bâjî Râo, who, among other things, had given an order to the Killidâr of the fort of Wassota (west of Satârâ), where the Râja and his family were confined, to put them all to death, rather than allow them to fall into the hands of the British. The Râja's name was Pratâb Singh (son of Sâhu II.), then in his twenty-seventh year. (Table, p. 172.)

Grant Duff.

The Râja's first proceedings.

Pratâb Singh.

The territory assigned to him was the tract between the S. Warda and the Nira, from the base of the Syhadrî mountains to Panderpûr. (See map, p. 160.)

His dominions.

The whole proceeding was perhaps unwise.

The Râja intrigued against his benefactors; and, in 1839, Sir James Carnac, Governor of Bombay (1839–1841), gave him every opportunity of retracing his steps; but he was obstinate, and was deposed, his brother being raised to the nominal dignity. The ex-Râja died in October 1847, and the Râja himself in April 1848; and Satârâ was annexed to the British dominions by consent of the home authorities in 1849.

Fall of the Râja of Satârâ.

(Comp. ch. x. § 144.)

This was the occasion of a great discussion on the whole questions of "annexation," "adoption," and "lapse." The decision then was, that adoption was not valid without the consent of the paramount power.

§ 165. The real history of the Mahrattas may close with a summary of the settlement by the British authorities of the country thus conquered. Four wars had been waged, with which the names of Warren Hastings, the Marquess Wellesley, and the Marquess of Hastings are to be connected. The climax had been reached.

The settlement of the Mahratta country, 1819.

General Thomas Munro reduced all the country to Shôlapûr, including Badâmi.

General Munro.

General Pritzler's force took Singhur, Pûrandar, and Wassota, before April 10.

Forts.

Raighur. The Bombay Government conquered the Konkan. Raighur, the famous capital of Sivajî, the strongest fort in the East, was taken May 7, 1818.

Other forts, 1818. The forts from Pûna to Ahmadnagar, and those in the Chanda range, were taken by Major Elridge, Colonel M'Dowell, and Colonel Cunningham.

Political officers. The whole country was now divided among various British officers, who gradually brought it into order.

Captains Grant Duff, Robertson, Henry Pottinger (afterwards Governor of Madras, 1848–1853), and Captain Briggs (translator of "Ferishta," and author of the "Muhammadan History"), were employed under Mr. Elphinstone, who became Governor of Bombay in November 1819, and held that office till he was succeeded by Sir J. Malcolm in 1827.

The Bhils of Central India. The Bhils of the mountains adjoining Kándésh were reduced to submission by Sir John Malcolm. Till his removal to Bombay, as the successor of Elphinstone, he laboured in Central India with rare benevolence and wisdom; and his name is regarded with the highest veneration in those districts to this day.

Mahratta Jaghirdárs. The Satárá Jaghirdárs. § 166. The Rája of Kolhápûr, who had been a faithful adherent of the British, was rewarded with the districts of Chickuri and Monouli.

The old hereditary Jaghirdárs, the Rája of Akulkót (§ 45), the Pant Suchéo of Bhór (one of the eight hereditary ministers of the Mahratta empire), the Prati Niti of Satárá, the Duffló, the Nimbálkur of Phultun, the Walkur of Wai, and others secured their estates.

The Sáwant Wádi state was included in the treaties of 1819. The Phatwardan, the Bháwa of Rámdrúg, and the Ghorepurey of Múdhól, are the chief of the Southern Mahratta Jaghirdárs.

Liberal pensions were given to all who had just claims.

From that time to this the progress of the Mahratta country has been rapid and unbroken. This, however, can best be studied in the voluminous and highly interesting published selections from the records of the Bombay Government.

The fact that the rebellion of 1857, 8, did not extend to the south of the Narbaddah, though the Nánâ of Bitûr was one of its leaders, is proof sufficient that the people are contented with their English rulers.

Recapitulation and conclusion of the Mahratta history. § 167. Thus have we given a faint outline of the story of this most remarkable Indian race, whose rise, as a ruling power, was coeval with that of the English. A people, among whom have been found men like Sâlivâhana, Sivajî, the first four Peshwâs, Râm Sâstrî, Nânâ Farnavîs, Mulhârjî Holkâr, and Rânoji Sindia; and who can boast of a ruler like Ahalyâ Bâî, deserves to rank among the foremost.

We have followed them from Tornea, where the youthful Sivajî performed his first exploit; to Ûdghîr, where they obtained their greatest victory over a Muhammadan army; to Pânipat, where they received the blow which for ever enfeebled them; to Bassein, where they triumphed, as no other Indian race has triumphed, over a European foe; to Arras, where they first, in an open battle-field, met an English army; to Kurdlâ, where all their confederate hosts mustered for the last time; to Assaî, where the great Wellington taught them that Mahratta horsemen could never hope to stand against the British bayonet; to Delhi, where Lake took the Mogul emperor out of their hands; to Laswârî, where all Hindûstân was wrested from their grasp; and to Mahîdpûr, where they fought their last national fight with the English. We have traced their history through triumphs and defeats. Maintaining a not unequal war for forty years with one of the greatest of the Moguls, they were at length supreme in Delhi itself. Over the Portuguese they triumphed. They, at one time or another, conquered and ruled from the banks of the Indus to those of the Câvêrî; from the shores of Orissa on the east, to Gujarât on the west. The matchless genius of the Wellesleys, of Lake, and of many other Britons hardly inferior to these, was required to effect their overthrow.

Wargâom and the Mokhundra Pass seemed for a moment to give them a hope of overcoming even Britons themselves; but, in a vast number of exciting conflicts, we have seen them beaten down; until—while scions of the race still reign in Gwâliôr, Indôr, and Barôda, upheld by British power and guided by British councils (and long may they so reign in peace and progressive prosperity),—in the other seats of ancient Mahratta dominion, English commissioners and collector-magistrates hold sway. If their career, for the most part, was one of restless aggression, of unscrupulous treachery, and of devastating warfare; if their great aim was to plunder the districts they over-ran; if they have conferred no moral or intellectual benefits on mankind; if their subjugation was the greatest blessing that could be conferred upon the unhappy regions wandered over and trodden down by their countless hosts: we cannot, for all this, cease to regard their history as one of the most interesting episodes in the annals of the human family.

CHAPTER VI.

THE PORTUGUESE IN INDIA.

PART I.—THE SEA-ROUTE TO INDIA. DA GAMA.

The beginning of Portuguese maritime enterprise, 1419–1460.

Prince Henry of Portugal. (1394–1463.) Cousin of Henry V. of England.

§ 1. Englishmen have a special interest in the history of Portuguese maritime discovery. John of Gaunt, "time-honoured Lancaster," had a daughter, Philippa, by his first wife, Blanche of Lancaster, who was married to John I. of Portugal. Their third son, Prince Henry, being intent upon encouraging maritime enterprises to the utmost, took up his abode at Sagres (near Cape St. Vincent), from whence he could see the fleets sailing forth on their errands of discovery. This good Prince was, till his death in 1463, the great patron and promoter of navigation in Portugal.

> ——— "The Genius, then,
> Had slumbered on the vast Atlantic deep
> For idle ages, starting, heard at last
> The Lusitanian Prince, who, heaven-inspired,
> To love of useful glory roused mankind,
> And in unbounded commerce mixed the world."

His labours produced abundant fruit before the end of the century. All Europe felt the impulse.

(*Marriage of Ferdinand of Aragon and Isabella of Castile*, 1460.)

§ 2. After the discovery of Madeira in A.D. 1420, and of the Cape de Verde islands in A.D. 1460, the great object the Portuguese navigators had in view was to complete the circuit of Africa. This grand design they accomplished, and in doing so changed the whole face of European affairs.

The progress of discovery.

The Western coast of Africa.

In 1486, Bartholomew Diaz, an experienced and enterprising navigator, passed the most southerly point of Africa, naming it the Cape of Tempests; but King John II., who had far more comprehensive views, called it the Cape of Good Hope. A new route of navigation to the East had now been discovered.

Diaz rounds the Cape, 1486.

In 1497, Vasco da Gâma was sent out by King Emmanuel, the enlightened patron of sea-adventure; passed the southern extremity of the mighty continent, without encountering any storms or dangers; and, skirting the eastern coast of Africa, procured a pilot at Melinda, from whence he steered boldly across the Indian Ocean, and cast anchor off Calicut, on the 11th of May 1498. Vasco da Gâma now knew that his name would rank with that of Columbus; and that his own country might again vie with Spain, enriched though the latter country was with the wealth of the New World. All Europe, too, was aware that a new æra had dawned upon the human race.

Da Gâma reaches India, 1498.

(*Cabot was making discoveries in America.*)

§ 3. The emperor reigning in Delhi at that time was Sikander, the second of the house of Lôdî. (Ch. ii. § 47. A.D. 1488–1518.)

The Bâhmanî dynasty, then ruling in the Dakhan, was, under the weak Mahmûd II., falling to pieces. (Ch. iv. § 21.)

The Bîjapûr kingdom, established A.D. 1489 by Yûsuf Adil Shâh, possessed the Konkan, between the Western Ghâts and the coast, from Goa to Bombay. (Ch. iv. § 22, 23.)

Summary of Indian affairs at the close of the fifteenth century.

India at the close of the fifteenth century.

South of Goa the country was still under petty Râjas. (Ch. iv. § 8.)

The most considerable of these was the Tamurin or Zamorin of Calicut.

(Comp. § 10.)

The Mamelukes reigned in Egypt from 1382 to 1517. Khânsu Ghôrî was their chief at this period.

The Uzbeks in 1498 got possession of Bokhâra.

Bâber was then engaged in his arduous struggles west of the Indus. (Ch. iii. § 3.)

Da Gâma in Calicut (Kâlikôd). (Ch. iv. § 8.)

§ 4. The Râja of Calicut was a Hindû. The port was open to merchants of every nation; but the trade was in the hands of the Muhammadans (or Moors) from Arabia, Egypt, and the eastern coast of Africa.

Moplas.

Muhammadanism had made great progress in Malabâr owing to the efforts of these Arabian traders. Of these converts the Mâpillas (Moplas) are the descendants.

Moorish traders.

These Moors, who trafficked in every great port of India, Africa, and the Mediterranean, were the rivals and bitter enemies of the Portuguese; and often combined with their fellow Muhammadans in India.

Da Gâma landed in great pomp, and had an interview with the Râja, who received him with kindness; which, however, was soon turned into suspicion by the artifices of the Muhammadans. Finding his armament insufficient, he returned to Portugal, where he arrived in August 1499; and was ennobled and amply rewarded by Emmanuel, King of Portugal (1498–1521), whose reign was thus rendered memorable by the foundation of the Portuguese power in the East.

Returns to Lisbon, 1499.

Cabral.

§ 5. The next Portuguese expedition to India, under Alvarez Cabral, sailed in A.D. 1500.

He was accompanied by eight friars, with instructions to propagate Christianity wherever they came, and to carry fire and sword into every country that refused to receive it. Thus they irritated the Muhammadans by their cruel intolerance.

Cabral, in sailing southward through the Atlantic, was carried too far towards the west: a fortunate accident, for he thus discovered the fertile, finely wooded, coast of Brazil; which has ever since been a possession of the Portuguese; and which now, under a prince of the royal family of Portugal, is a flourishing, independent empire. Discovery of Brazil, 1499.

In the storms this expedition encountered while passing the Cape, Bartholomew Diaz, who had first rounded it (§ 2), perished. Death of Bartholomew Diaz, 1500.

Cabral arrived at Calicut in September 1500. He was at first received with kindness; but jealousies soon arose. He captured a ship belonging to the Moors; who in revenge attacked the factory, and massacred fifty of the Portuguese. Cabral revenged himself by burning the Moorish ships and bombarding the town; after which he withdrew to Cochin, a city second at that time to Calicut only. Here he was well received, as at Cannanûr also. The Râjas of these places were at enmity with their nominal superior the Zamorin. Cruelty of Cabral.

He reached Lisbon, July 31, 1501, where the story of his disasters excited strong interest.

The Portuguese had been wanting in tact. They had not tried to conciliate; but had behaved with the arrogance of conquerors. Yet, in regard to trade, they were in the event eminently successful. By their command of the seas they secured an absolute monopoly of all Indian products, which henceforward found their way to Europe only round the Cape, the routes by the Persian Gulf and Red Sea being closed. Conduct of the Portuguese in India. Their commercial success.

Venice, Genoa, and Amalphi saw with dismay the sources of their opulence dried up. The Italian republics.

§ 6. Vasco da Gâma was soon at the head of a new expedition, bent on revenging the supposed wrongs of Cabral, and on carrying things with a still higher hand.

He tarnished the lustre of his name by seizing a Moorish ship, and burning it with all its crew. Anchoring off Calicut, he demanded redress for the injuries sustained by Cabral; and when some delay Gâma's cruelty, 1502.

occurred, collected fifty natives from different captured ships, and cut their throats, sending their hands and feet on shore to Zamorin.

He leaves India.

After this the natives contrived to get him into their power; but he escaped and set sail for Portugal. This expedition seems to have been entirely fruitless.

Vincente Sodre.

Meanwhile a squadron under Vincente Sodre cruised about the mouth of the Red Sea, to cut off the Moorish vessels; and thus the Portuguese made themselves masters of the Arabian Gulf. Vincente Sodre, after many acts of piracy, perished at sea.

Albuquerque, 1504.

§ 7. The next expedition, in 1504, was under the two brothers Alphonso and Francisco Albuquerque, and Saldanha.

His character.

ALPHONSO ALBUQUERQUE is the greatest name in Indo-Portuguese history (§ 12). He was not uniformly successful, nor perhaps always prudent.

The comparison of his history with those of Clive and Dupleix will be most instructive.

War between Calicut and Cochin.

At this period, the Zamorin, enraged at the countenance afforded to the foreigners by Triampâra, the Râja of Cochin, had attacked and driven him from his capital to the island of Vipeen, where he was rescued by Albuquerque. After an unsuccessful attempt to arrange matters with the Zamorin, the Albuquerques returned to Europe, leaving the fleet in the hand of Duarte Pacheco.

Duarte Pacheco, 1504.

§ 8. DUARTE PACHECO was a man of rare valour, a most able commander, and far-sighted politician. His exploits resemble those of the French *Paradis*, while his end was that of *Dupleix*. (Ch. viii. § 24.)

His great exploit was the defence of Cochin, and the signal defeat of the formidable armaments of the Zamorin. No sooner had the Albuquerques departed, than the Zamorin again attacked Cochin with an overwhelming force. Pacheco took the command of the

Cochin forces, consisting of a few hundreds of native soldiers and 400 Portuguese. With these he defeated an army of 50,000 men, trained by some Milanese deserters, and aided by a fleet of 160 vessels. Not one of the defenders fell. A second attack and a third were similarly repulsed, with great slaughter, and Pacheco had at length the satisfaction of seeing the Zamorin's armament return to Calicut utterly defeated.

The famous defence of Cochin. The first great European victory in India.

[Compare this with Clive in Arcot, 1751.]

Thus Pacheco taught to the nations of the West (though the lesson was at the time overlooked), what Paradis demonstrated two hundred years afterwards (in 1746) (ch. viii. § 5); and what Clive again proved at Plassey (in 1757), that no native army, however large, can stand against even a handful of men, disciplined and led by skilful European officers. This is not because native troops are deficient in courage. They are not so. Science and discipline chiefly give the European force its tremendous advantage.

1504.
1746.
1757.

§ 9. Lope Soarez soon superseded Pacheco, who had spent his fortune in his country's service. The latter was made Governor of Elmina, where false accusations being brought against him, he was sent home in chains. He was honourably acquitted, but died in obscurity.

Soarez took Cranganôr. By his overbearing temper he destroyed the prospect of peace with the Zamorin, and returned to Europe.

(16 miles N. of Cochin. Taken 1505. Then by the Dutch in 1663.)

PART II.—The First Viceroy. Almeyda.

§ 10. Francisco Almeyda, the first Portuguese Viceroy of India, was sent out in A.D. 1505.

The first Portuguese Viceroy, 1505 or 1508. (*Bijanagar.*)

He received an embassy from Vijayanagar (or Narsinga) (ch. iv. § 19, 29), bringing splendid presents, and offering the Râja's daughter in marriage to Prince John (afterwards John III., 1521–1557), son of King Emmanuel.

During Almeyda's time a dreadful tragedy took place at Quilon, where a Portuguese factor interfered with the Moors, who retaliated by burning a church with thirteen men in it. This he avenged by burning their fleet.

(CHAP. VI. § 11. A.D. 1505, 7.

Rapid extension of Portuguese power.

War with Egypt.

This year the Mameluke Sultân of Egypt, Khânsu Ghôrî (§ 3), fitted out a fleet to contest with the Portuguese the empire of the Arabian Sea, instigated by the Venetians, who were jealous of the monopoly of Indian productions now possessed by Portugal. A terrible naval battle was fought off Chaul, which lasted two days. The Egyptians were aided by the King of Gujarât, Mahmûd Bêgara, who sent a fleet under Aiâz Sultânî (Malikâz). Mahmûd had fitted out his fleet originally to destroy pirates; but he zealously aided the Sultân in his project of sweeping the infidels from the Eastern seas. The Musalmân fleet on this occasion gained an advantage. (Ch. ii. § 41.)

The death of young Almeyda.

The death of Almeyda's heroic son, and the humanity and courtesy of Aiâz, are especially to be noted in this affair.

Young Lorenzo Almeyda was wounded. The combined fleets of the Musalmâns were overwhelmingly superior to his own, and his ship had got ashore; yet he made heroic efforts to maintain the fight till the advancing tide should float his ship. He kept the whole squadron of the enemy at bay; and, when his thigh was broken by a shot, caused himself to be lashed to the mast, whence he cheered on his men, till he fell mortally wounded by a ball in the breast.

Aiâz treated the survivors tenderly, and wrote a letter of condolence to Almeyda, who bore his loss with the spirit of an ancient Roman.

Almeyda visited Colon in 1507.

The second Portuguese Viceroy, 1508–1515.

§ 11. Meanwhile (in 1508) Alphonso Albuquerque landed the second time in India, bringing a commission to supersede Almeyda.

ALBUQUERQUE is therefore the second Viceroy, or Governor-General of Portuguese India.

Almeyda's revenge.

Almeyda, refusing to yield to him, sailed on an expedition to attack the Musalmân fleet, and to avenge the death of his son.

(85 miles N. by E. from Bom-

He attacked Dâbul on his way, and burnt the city, with the most dreadful and atrocious cruelty.

He then sailed to the Gulf of Kambay, where he met the combined fleets off Diû.

bay:=Dêvâlaya, temple of God. 1509.

He was completely successful, but stained his victory with the blood of his prisoners. This put an end to the designs of the Sultân. Portugal remained supreme in the Arabian Gulf.

On his return to Cochin, he was with difficulty persuaded to resign his office to Albuquerque, and set sail for Portugal. On the way home, he landed on the African coast, and fell in a miserable scuffle with a band of Hottentots.

Death of Almeyda, 1509.

Thus ignobly perished (in 1509) the first Portuguese Viceroy.

PART III.—The Second Viceroy. Albuquerque.

§ 12. Albuquerque, his successor, from the first burned with ambition to reduce all India beneath the sway of Portugal.

Albuquerque, 1508.

The anarchy which prevailed throughout the land at the time favoured his design. The Muhammadan empire north of the Narbaddah was in that state of disorganisation which soon after (1526) invited Bâbar to its conquest; and the Bâhmini Dakhan kingdom was in the course of dismemberment by its viceroys. (Ch. iv. § 22.)

His ambitious schemes.

The "Dupleix" of the Portuguese.

He nearly lost his life in an abortive attack on Calicut.

His next project was to seize Goa, which is situated on an island, on the west coast, and then belonged to Bijapûr. He was instigated to this by a pirate, Timmujî.

1509.

First attempt to occupy Goa.

He took possession of it easily; but was soon driven out by Yusûf Âdil Shâh in person.

A second attempt was successful after a protracted contest. He had thus got, what he justly considered to be essential to Portuguese supremacy in the East, a spacious harbour and a considerable city.

Conquest of Goa, 1510.

He immediately sent embassies to the different

The founder of Goa.

native courts, and received their envoys with great splendour.

His policy.

He encouraged intermarriages between his officers and respectable native families; and acted the part of a Romulus to this new Rome.

Ormuz, 1510.

§ 13. Ormuz, an island which commands the entrance to the Persian Gulf, had been nearly taken by Albuquerque on his way out. He now fitted out a splendid expedition, which easily wrested it from its petty ruler; and this place soon became the centre of the trade between India, Persia, and Western Asia. A splendid city rose on this uninviting spot. A.D. 1510.

Aden.

An expedition planned by him against Aden failed.

Albuquerque's comprehensive schemes.

Having secured such an admirable emporium as Ormuz in the Arabian Gulf, he now, with far-seeing wisdom, resolved to establish a city in the Eastern Archipelago, which should command the trade between India, China, and the vast islands of the Eastern seas.

Malacca, 1511.

He fixed upon Malacca; and, not without difficulty, captured it from its Malay founders in 1511.

His policy towards natives.

Here, too, a splendid city speedily rose. He strove in the Malayan peninsula, as everywhere else, to join together the natives and the Portuguese by the bond of a common interest, treating them as friends and equals. Albuquerque also sent embassies to Siam, Java, and Sumatra.

Lope Soarez, 1515.

§ 14. But Albuquerque was growing old, and, strange to say, was superseded by LOPE SOAREZ, the *third Portuguese Viceroy*. He had been in India before (§ 9).

Thus did Portugal at a later period, was France. Clive and Hastings, too, had to bear severe persecutions, though they outlived them. (Ch. ix. § 32; x. § 13.) prove signally ungrateful to her greatest men. So,

Albuquerque, dismissed without a reason, and without anything that might have softened the blow, died broken-hearted.

Albuquerque's Death.

Death of Albuquerque, 1515.

In a ship near Goa he breathed his last, tranquil at length as death drew near, and was buried on shore (A.D. 1515). A splendid monument still attests his merits. He was violent in some of his actions; yet his general administration led to such splendid results, and his personal qualities were of so high an order, that his countrymen unanimously style him "the great."

The Portuguese empire in its highest state of glory.

§ 15. The Portuguese empire, if so it can be called, was now at its zenith of glory. A few additions were made afterwards; and during the reigns of Emmanuel and his son John III. (1498–1557), they acquired many settlements, some of which still belong to Portugal. These were a few stations on the eastern coast of Africa, the island of Ormuz, Diû in Gujarât, Goa, and some lesser places on the west coast of India, several settlements in Ceylon, a few inconsiderable stations on the Coromandel coast, Malacca on the Malayan Peninsula, and some factories on the Malacca islands. Their possessions thus extended over 12,000 miles of coast. Over this immense area they had about thirty factories in the most favourable positions. Their real strength was at sea; and their empire was not the dominion over extensive kingdoms, but the more really beneficial one of an absolute command of the lucrative trade between the East and the West, without rival or control. Their great object was to exclude all other nations from a share in this wealth-bestowing enterprise. We shall see in the sequel how quickly this imposing fabric fell to ruin.

(Diû, an island = *Dwîpa.*)

The extent of the Portuguese empire, 1515.

(Bombay was acquired in 1530 *from* the Chief of Tanna.)

PART IV.—From 1530–1580.

The capture of Diû, 1534.

§ 16. But we must resume the history. The circumstances under which Diû became a Portuguese city (1534) are remarkable. Bahâdar Shâh was King of Mâlwâ from A.D. 1526. (Ch. ii. § 41.) The troubles of the times enabled the Viceroys of Gujarât to maintain, in general, their independence (ch. iii. § 4, 6); but Humâyûn (1531) made an expedition against Bahâdar, which was nearly successful.

Then Bassein was taken (1534) by the Portuguese. (Comp. ch. v. § 51.)

Nunho Cunha.

This was the time chosen by Nunho Cunha, then the Portuguese viceroy, to attack Diû. The attack was unsuccessful; but Bahâdar entered into negotiations with the Portuguese, which resulted in their occupation of Diû, and the erection of a fort. There was, however, much jealousy on both sides. Bahâdar one day went on board the ship where the viceroy was sick, or pretended to be so, and an inexplicable tumult arose, in which Bahâdar was killed and many others, both natives and Portuguese. The suspicion cannot be avoided that treachery was designed by the latter. About the same time they took Damân. These two small places still remain under the power of Portugal. (Introd. § 19.)

The death of Bahâdar Shâh.

1538-1545.

Bombay was occupied in 1530; and made over to England in 1661.

Siege of Diû, 1538.

Gracio de Norhonha.

§ 17. The year 1538 is memorable for the siege of Diû by the Gujarât forces, aided by the Pasha of Egypt, under orders from his superior, Sulaimân the Magnificent, the Ottoman Sultân of Constantinople. Gracio de Noronha was now viceroy. But to the brave Silveira must be ascribed the glory of the gallant defence. The besiegers did not desist from the attempt, till the Portuguese, who had fought with unparalleled determination, were reduced to forty persons.

Rûmi Khân, the Turkish engineer, was in command of the Gujarât artillery. (Ch. iii. § 4, p. 88.)

Francis Xavier. 1506-1552.

The greatest man connected with the Portuguese in India is FRANCIS XAVIER, born 1506, in Navarre, of an illustrious family of royal descent, companion of Ignatius Loyola, and one of the founders of the order of Jesuits. He came out under the patronage of John III., who appointed Martin Alphonso de Souza viceroy in 1541, especially because he was zealous for the propagation of Christianity.

Xavier preached, baptized, and founded missions, which still flourish, along the coast of Southern India, in Malacca, in the Spice Islands, and in Japan. He died on the Island of *Chang Chuen*, in an attempt to introduce Christianity into China (1552).

His body is buried in Goa. He was canonised, and is generally styled the "*Apostle of the Indies.*" He was one of the greatest men of Christendom.

Juan de Castro.

His cruelty and pride.

§ 18. In 1545, JUAN DE CASTRO, one of the most celebrated of the Portuguese viceroys, arrived, and found the port of Diû hard pressed. He relieved it, took possession of the native city, and gave it up to indiscriminate plunder and massacre. He then made a triumphal entry into Goa, with the royal standard of the Gujarât king dragged in the dust.

It was well said in reference to this, that "Juan de Castro conquered like a Christian, but triumphed like a pagan."

This great viceroy was disinterested, brave, and successful; but his cruelties tarnished his fame, and prepared the way for the downfall of the Portuguese power in India.

In fact, this period of Indian history is full of accounts of expeditions in which the coast was ravaged, and villages burnt and plundered by the Portuguese.

Confederation against the Portuguese, 1571.

§ 19. It is not surprising, then, that in 1571 a combination was formed by Alî Âdil Shâh of Bîjapûr, Murteza Nizâm Shâh of Ahmadnagar, and the Zamorin, to drive the Portuguese out of India. Goa was besieged by a mighty host under Âdil Shâh, and Chaul by another at the same time under Murteza. But the valour of the Portuguese, and the skill of their viceroy, *Luis de Ataide*, prevailed; and, after a ten months' siege, Goa was saved. The other attacks too were repulsed. (Ch. iv. § 23.)

The Portuguese settlements in India were now divided into three distinct governments, Ceylon, Goa, and Malacca. But the sure progress of decay was felt in all.

PART V.—DECAY.

Decay of Portuguese power, 1580–1656.

§ 20. From 1580 to 1640 Portugal was under the sway of Spain; and during that period, though isolated acts of heroism were occasionally performed, the trade of Portugal declined, her colonies languished, and her sceptre gradually passed into the hands of the Dutch. (Comp. ch. iii. § 8 [5].)

We find the degenerate successors of Albuquerque trembling before Sivajî in 1662, paying tribute to the Mahrattas, although at times valiantly opposing them, and, alas! surpassing them in barbarity.

Bassein.

In 1739 (ch. v. § 51) the Mahrattas took Bassein from the Portuguese after a terrible siege. This was a great triumph to that rising power.

The Dutch take the Portuguese settlements.

Sad is the record of the wresting from Portugal of her Eastern possessions, one by one.

In 1607 the Moluccas were seized by the Dutch.

In 1622 Persia seized upon Ormuz, and the Imâm of Muscat gradually stripped them of most of their possessions on the east coast of Africa.

In 1640 Malacca was occupied by the Dutch.

It was taken from them by the British in 1795, restored in 1818, and finally again came under England in 1824. (Ch. x. § 82.)

In 1656 they were driven from Ceylon by the same indefatigable enemy.

Causes of the decline of Portuguese power in India.

§ 21. The causes of this rapid decline are, however, sufficiently obvious.

(1.) Spain had laid her benumbing hand upon the unhappy mother country. Philip II., too well known to England, ruled her. His tyranny and jealousy were the first causes of the decline of the Portuguese in India.

Under Prince Maurice.

(2.) The Dutch, having gained their independence, broke the monopoly, and entered upon their new career with an energy which enabled them to triumph over their rivals.

(3.) The Portuguese power rested solely on their supremacy at sea. When this passed into other hands, their Indian empire collapsed.

(4.) The Inquisition was introduced into India as early as 1526. Sword and faggot were the ordinary means of conversion. The intolerance of the Portuguese lost them the confidence of the natives.

This intolerance was shown by the Portuguese especially in their treatment of the Christians of Travancore, who are now called *Syrians*, and whose ancestors were converted to Christianity in the fourth century.

They repeatedly carried away the Syrian bishop and imprisoned him; and in a synod at Diamper, in 1599, *Menezes*, Archbishop of Goa, decreed that all the Syrian books should be destroyed, and proceeded to the employment of the most cruel measures to reduce the Syrians to obedience to the Papal See. This, however, he failed to effect. (Diamper, 14 miles E. from *Cochin*.)

(5.) They were, from first to last, cruel in their treatment of enemies. They never gained in the East a reputation for wisdom or humanity. Without this, no such dominion can hope to endure.

(6.) The successors of Albuquerque were, with one or two exceptions, corrupt and incapable; while in cruelty and violence they surpassed the founders of the empire.

The later viceroys were generally beneath contempt.

§ **22.** The present possessions of Portugal in India are *Goa*, *Damân*, and *Diû*, with a population of about 500,000. Portuguese possessions in India in 1869. (Introd. § 19.)

CHAPTER VII.

THE HISTORY OF THE EUROPEAN COMPANIES, WHICH, AFTER THE PORTUGUESE, STROVE TO OBTAIN A SHARE IN THE EASTERN TRADE TO A.D. 1746.

PART I.—Early Commerce with India.

Ancient commerce with India. [Comp. ch. ii.]

§ 1. In ancient times, each empire, as it rose, aimed at the conquest of India as its crowning triumph. Traces of Phenician traders, probably of Hebrew, and certainly of very early Greek merchants, on the western coast of India, have been found. In the middle ages, the trade with India raised the imperial republics of Venice and Genoa to a surprising pitch of greatness.

Venice and Genoa.

In modern times, the maritime powers of Europe have vied with one another in their efforts to obtain a monopoly of the Eastern trade.

Influence upon maritime affairs of this desire to reach India. Columbus, 1492.

§ 2. The desire to find a western route to India led Columbus to the discovery of America. The hope of discovering a north-eastern or north-western passage

to India was one of the great incitements to European sailors to undertake voyages into the arctic regions, the records of which contain such examples of heroic effort and endurance.

English navigators.

The voyages of Willoughby, Chancellor, Cabot (1497), Frobisher, Davis, Hudson, and many others, to the north-west and north-east, though they failed in their main object, were brilliantly successful in enlarging the bounds of geographical knowledge; and they laid the foundation of the naval supremacy of England.

Willoughby, 1553.

Hudson, 1597.

Vasco de Gâma 1498. (Comp. ch. vi. § 2.)

The determination to find a route by sea to India led to those expeditions which, in A.D. 1498, were, as we have seen, crowned with success, when Vasco de Gâma landed at Calicut.

The Portuguese showed Modern Europe the way to the East. The record of their successes and failures has been given in chap. vi. They strove in vain to maintain an exclusive right to the navigation of the Eastern seas. Their monopoly was happily soon broken.

European Powers in India.

§ 3. The Portuguese were followed in succession by the Dutch (A.D. 1594); by the English (A.D. 1600); by the French (A.D. 1668); and by the Danes (A.D. 1616).

PART II.—The Dutch East India Company.

The Dutch, 1580. (Union of Utrecht, 1579. Maurice of Orange, 1585–1625.)

§ 4. The Dutch had no sooner freed themselves from the tyranny of Spain than they turned their attention to the Eastern trade. They endeavoured first of all to find a northern route by sea to India and China.

This failing, they sent out four ships under a man called Houtman, who had obtained some knowledge of the East (A.D. 1594).

CHAP. VII. § 4. A.D. 1594–1783.

The Dutch in India.

The destination of these and of several succeeding expeditions was the Eastern Archipelago, where they carried on a thriving trade in spices.

Dutch rivalries with the Portuguese, 1594.

They soon began to try to supplant the Portuguese, and easily expelled them from the Moluccas.

This led to open war between the two nations; and in 1605 the Dutch expelled the Portuguese from Amboyna and Tidor, and fully established their own supremacy in the Eastern seas.

1623. (Dryden wrote a tragedy on this in 1723.) (Comp. Introd. § 37.)

The name of Amboyna is connected with a mournful occurrence, commonly called the Massacre of Amboyna, in which ten Englishmen, one Portuguese, and nine Japanese were put to death by the Dutch, for a supposed conspiracy.

In 1656, the Dutch drove their rivals from Ceylon, where they themselves established large and prosperous factories.

Ceded to England in 1799.

1610.

They at length founded the colony of Batavia, on the north-west coast of Jâva, which is still the capital of the Dutch settlements in the East.

In 1640, they drove the Portuguese from Malacca, and now their only rivals in the Eastern seas and islands were the English. They very soon lost their supremacy.

(Peace of Versailles.)

Their chief settlements in India were at Negapatam (taken from Portugal, 1660), Sadras, Pulicat, and Bimlipatam. These have all fallen into the hands of the British (1783). (Ch. xii. § 30.) Cochin was taken in 1796.

NOTE.—*Pulicat* is on the coast, twenty-three miles N. from Madras. There is a lake near it, forty miles in length and six in breadth. The Dutch were here in 1609. The English took it in 1795.
Sadras is on the coast, forty-one miles S.W. from Madras. It was a populous and flourishing Dutch settlement in 1647.
Bimlipatam is on the sea-coast in the Northern Sirkârs, sixteen miles N.N.E. from Vizagapatam.

PART III.—The Danish Company.

§ 5. The Government of Denmark has only held two settlements in India, at Tranquebâr (bought from the Râja of Tanjore, A.D. 1616); and at Serampore, on the Hûglî. The Danes in India, 1616.

These were sold to the English in A.D. 1845. February 22.

Both places have been celebrated for the laborious and learned men who were there engaged in translating the Christian Scriptures into the vernacular languages of India, and in other works connected with the propagation of Christianity in the East. The memory of Ziegenbalg (1706–1719) and Fabricius (1739–1791), who lived in Tranquebâr; and of the noble band of the Serampore missionaries, Carey, Ward, and Marshman, will ever command the respect of all who know how to value self-denying, benevolent, and heroic effort. Tranquebâr and Serampore memorable places. Missionaries. (From 1800.)

Schwartz, another excellent Christian missionary (1750–1798), resided for eleven years in Tranquebâr, and afterwards in Trichinopoly and Tanjore. He was sent as an envoy to Haidar in 1779. (Ch. xii. § 25.) Schwartz.

PART IV.—The English in India.

§ 6. (*a*.) The example of the Portuguese and Dutch was not lost upon the English. The first English in India, 1579.

One of the first Englishmen who visited India was a man of the name of Thomas Stevens, of New College, Oxford, who went to Goa in 1597. The narrative of his travels excited immense interest in England. He was principal of a college in Salsette in 1608. Then came the travels of Storey, Newberry, Leedes, and Fitch. They carried a letter from Queen Elizabeth to Akbar. Storey remained in Goa as a monk. Leedes took service under the Emperor Akbar.

(*b*.) Accordingly in A.D. 1600 (at the time when England was in the zenith of her glory), the most extraordinary chartered body, as to its constitution and fortunes, that was ever formed, the British East India The first English East India Company formed, Dec. 31, 1600. (Spenser died in 1599.)

Company, was incorporated by Queen Elizabeth. At the time no great enthusiasm was shown. It was proved by the promoters of the undertaking that spices, indigo, and silk, could be bought for one third of the price in Malabâr that the English merchants were giving in Aleppo or Alexandria; but money came in slowly.

There were twenty-four directors and a governor. The first "chairman of the Court of Directors" was Thomas Smythe. Their first ships sailed in 1601; but the destination of these was the islands of the Eastern Archipelago.

Second company, 1698.

(*c.*) The second company was formed in A.D. 1698, and the two were united by King William III. in 1702.

Captain Hawkins, 1608. (Milton born.)

(*d.*) Meanwhile an expedition (the first to India) under Captain Hawkins arrived in Sûrat in 1608, with letters to Jehângîr, from James I., and from the East India Company. Hawkins delivered his letters in person, was honourably received, and remained at Âgra for three years. (Comp. pp. 103–108.)

Middleton, 1609.

1611.

(*e.*) Sir H. Middleton arrived at Sûrat in 1609. Here the Company's first factory was established in 1611; not without great opposition from the Portuguese.

1613.

(*f.*) Jehângîr, in the year of his marriage with Nûr Jehân, gave permission to the English to establish four factories in his dominions. This firman was signed in 1613.

Best's victory, 1612.

This result was partly due to the fact that Captain Best, with four ships of war, had encountered and defeated a Portuguese fleet off Sûrat, and thus gained for the English a reputation for superior prowess. This was in 1612.

Sir Thomas Roe's embassy, 1615. (Jehângir, 1605–1627.)

(*g.*) The embassy of Sir Thomas Roe (in 1615) was of even more importance. He was received with great kindness, and had ample opportunities of seeing the emperor's court and capital. General permission to trade throughout the empire was now given to the English.

In 1616 we find an English factory at Ajmir.

(*h.*) New Delhi was then in course of erection, and the magnificent buildings which have shed such a glory over the memory of Shâh Jehân, were beheld by the English visitors in their foundation and growth. (Ch. iii. § 8.) (Shâh Jehân, 1627–1658.)

(*i.*) In 1616, the Company had factories at Sûrat, Calicut, and Masulipatam. (Shakespeare died, 1616.)

They had also a settlement at Bantam in Java, and to these the Indian settlements were subordinate.

(*j.*) The year 1624 is rendered remarkable by the concession to the company of the power to punish their servants, even capitally. The Company become rulers 1624.

They had thus become rulers! This is looked upon as an era in their history.

In 1634, permission was given to the English to trade with Bengâl, but they were restricted to the one port of Piplî in Midnâpûr. 1634.

(*k.*) During the reign of Shâh Jehân (in 1636), Mr. Boughton, an English surgeon, was sent according to the emperor's request to attend his sick daughter; and, succeeding in curing her, he obtained from the emperor's gratitude extensive privileges for his countrymen. Gabriel Boughton, 1636.

(*l.*) In 1639, Fort St. George, or Madras, was founded by Mr. Francis Day. The Coromandel coast was, in fact, found more convenient for the purchase of "piece goods," muslins from Dacca, and cotton goods from the Dakhan. Madras founded, 1639.

The factory had previously been placed at Armogam, thirty-six miles N. of Pulicat (1625). The Hindû governor offered to build a fort for the English at his own expense, and to exempt the trade from customs-duties, if the English would settle at Madras. (Ch. iv. § 29.) Armogam.

(*m.*) Madras was fortified at the command of Charles I. He blamed the Company for "*neglecting to establish fortified factories where the king's subjects could reside with safety.*" (Ch. iv. § 29.) Madras fortified.

(*n.*) Curious it is indeed to reflect, that while the contests of the reign of Charles I. were going on; while Pym and Hampden were contending against arbitrary power; while Strafford and The times of the Great Rebellion, 1642-1660.

Land were dying with a courage worthy of a better cause; while the battles of the civil war raged; and while Charles himself was being beheaded to make way for a military despotism, these factors were quietly laying the foundations of an empire which was to be handed over to the Queen of England two centuries later.

In 1650 we first hear of a factory at Hûglî; and at Bâlasôr in 1642.

1653. (*o.*) In 1653, Madras was made a separate presidency. Cromwell, very characteristically, wished to abolish the Company's monopoly, but was prevailed upon to grant a charter in 1657.

1657.

1661. In 1661 Charles II. issued a new charter.

The defence of Sûrat, 1664. (*p.*) The military reputation of the English was extended through the defence of Sûrat by Sir G. Oxenden (Governor of Bombay, 1665–1667), when attacked by Sivajî in 1664. (Ch. v. § 17.)

All fled but the English, who resisted the invader and protected the inhabitants.

1667. Aurangzîb testified his admiration and gratitude by remitting certain duties and charges payable by them to the imperial treasury. [But compare ch. iii. §. 10. (20).]

Bombay, 1668. (It was made over to the British in 1661.) (*q.*) In 1668, Bombay, which had been given as part of the dowry of Catherine of Braganza, was handed over to the Company, and became the chief presidency in India. It was made the chief seat of the British Government in 1683. As early as 1664 they traded with Malabâr, and in 1708 obtained a grant of Tellicherry.

It was in 1668 that the "tea-trade" was first heard of.

(*r.*) In 1696, the villages of Chuttanatti, Calcutta, and Govindpûr were purchased from Azîm-u-Shân, grandson of Aurangzîb.

(Comp. table, ch. iii. § 10.) In 1702 the rival company, which had been formed in 1698, was amalgamated with the old one.

Then was granted what is called Queen Anne's charter.

At this time the Company was authorised to raise troops for the defence of its settlements.

(*s.*) A fort was ordered to be built and called Fort William, in honour of King William III. — Calcutta, 1698.

The history of Calcutta to 1756 is little else than a record of the efforts of the British merchants to resist the exactions of the Nuwâb of Mûrshedâbâd. (Ch. iii. § 15.)

In 1715 a deputation was sent to the Emperor Farukhshîr, to secure a greater degree of protection from the native powers. [Comp. ch. iii. § 12 (8).]

They were successful, and Calcutta was thereupon declared a separate presidency (1715).

The use of the term *presidency* requires explanation. The establishment at each principal seat of trade consisted of merchants, senior and junior, who conducted the trade; factors, who ordered goods, inspected them and despatched them; and writers, who were the clerks and bookkeepers. A writer after five years became a factor; after three years more a merchant. From these last the members of council were chosen, and one of them was selected as president of the factory. Soldiers, sepoys, and peons made up the establishment. — Presidency. Establishments at the Presidencies. The President.

The directors doubted the expediency of accepting the territory granted by Farukhshîr; for, say they, "as our business is trade, it is not politic for us to be encumbered with much territory." The letters of the directors abound in injunctions to their servants to be just, humane, unostentatious, and economical. — Moderate and humane counsels of the Directors.

At the same time the heads of the presidencies are encouraged to proceed with all the works of a *defensive* character, all *offensive* warfare being quite foreign to their plans. — Defensive works.

Their president, in A.D. 1725, charged them with 1100 rupees for a "chaise and a pair of horses." This they disallowed. "If our servants will have such superfluities, let them pay for them." All extravagance is to be discouraged. "In some shape or other we shall have to pay for it." "It leads to penury." — No extravagance allowed.

Yet these *presidencies* in due time became *provinces*. Merchants gave way to governors. Profits were replaced by revenue. Trade gradually was exchanged for dominion.

The Nuwâb of Bengâl, Jaffîr Khân, died in 1725, and was succeeded by his son Shuja-ud-dîn-Khân. One of his Omrahs was the adventurer Alî-vardî-Khân. (Ch. iii. § 15.) — 1725.

In 1742 the Mahrattas attacked Bengâl, demanding — 1742.

Chout (ch. v. § 57). It was then the Mahratta ditch was dug to afford protection against a repetition of the attack.

For the further history of the British settlements in Bengâl, see chap. ix.

PART V.—The French in India.

French East India Company, 1604.

§ 7. (1.) Various French East India Companies were formed, and expeditions made by that nation, from A.D. 1604.

Colbert, 1664.

(2.) But the celebrated Colbert has the merit of establishing the Company on a firm footing, in 1664, Louis XIV. declaring that trade to India was not beneath the dignity of a noble.

This company was dissolved in 1769.

Caron, 1668.

(3.) Their first settlement in India was at Sûrat, where both the English and the Dutch had flourishing factories.

The leader was François Caron.

1669.

(4.) In 1669 they obtained a settlement at Masulipatam.

1672. 1674.

They took Trincomalee and Meilâpûr (or St. Thomé) from the Dutch in 1672; but lost them again in 1674, the English being neutral.

April 1674.

(5.) They now bought a piece of land from the Bijapûr Government, on which they erected the city called now Pondicherry (Puthu-chêri = *new town*). [Comp. ch. iii. § 9 (13).]

I. François Martin, the founder of Pondicherry.

François Martin, an honoured name in French history, was its founder. He died in 1706.

May 1677.

(6.) Martin's first danger was from Sivajî, who, during his expedition to the Carnatic, his last great

effort, threatened Pondicherry; but was conciliated by the judicious measures of the French Governor. (Ch. v. §. 23–24.)

(7.) Martin's next enemies were the Dutch, who in 1693 attacked and took Pondicherry. — Martin in Pondicherry.

In connection with this, the reply of Râm Râj (ch. v. § 34), to the Dutch, who offered to buy Pondicherry from him, deserves to be remembered. — Râm Râj gives an honest answer.

"The French," said he, "fairly purchased it, and paid a valuable consideration for it; and all the money in the world would never tempt me to dislodge them!"

But poor Râm Râj was soon cooped up in Gingî; and the Moguls received the Dutch bribe, and aided them in their attack. — The Dutch take it, Sept. 8, 1693.

(8.) In 1697 the Peace of Ryswick was signed, Pondicherry was restored; and Martin returned in triumph to enlarge and fortify it, and to raise it by skilful policy, good government, and fair dealing, to the rank of a great commercial city. He was an able man, and a magnaminous and disinterested patriot. — (William III., Louis XIV.)

Mr. Thomas Pitt, grandfather of the Earl of Chatham, was then Governor of Madras (1698–1700). It was at this time (1700–1702) that Aurangzîb's great general, Dâûd Khân Panni, paid a visit to Madras, and demanded 10,000 pagodas as a present. Mr. Pitt feasted him, and gave him abundance of the strong waters he loved; but some part of the present, at least, was given. — Pitt and Dâûd Khân Panni.

(9.) In 1688 the French obtained from Aurangzîb a settlement at Chandernagar, when Shayista Khân was Viceroy of Bengâl. — Chandernagar, 1688. (Ch. ix. § 8.)

(10.) In 1725 Mahé was added to the French possessions. Its name was Mahî; but it was taken chiefly by the daring and ingenuity of a young French naval officer, *Bertrand François Mahé de la Bourdonnais*; and the slight change in the name was made in honour of the captor, who was destined, twenty years afterwards, to act a memorable part in the affairs of South India. — Mahé, 1725. (= *Fish.*) De la Bourdonnais. Born 1699. Died 1753.

(11.) In 1731 Joseph Francois Dupleix was appointed director of Chandernagar, which he raised from a well-nigh deserted port to a flourishing empo- — Dupleix in Chandernagar.

rium. He also amassed by trade, then permitted to the Company's servants, a vast fortune. There he remained till 1741.

Mauritius and Bourbon, 1672.

(12.) Meanwhile, in the Isles of France and Bourbon, a great colony had been founded.

The Isle of France, originally Cerné, was called Mauritius by the Dutch (in honour of Prince Maurice of Nassau), which name it now bears.

II. Dumas, 1735–1741.

The French governor of these islands, M. DUMAS, in 1735, became Governor-General of the French possessions in India, which position he filled till succeeded by Dupleix in 1741.

Dumas' system of interference.

(13.) DUMAS was worthy of his predecessor, Martin. In his time began that system of interference with the affairs of the Hindû princes, which has led to such mighty results.

In 1710 Sâdat-ulla-Khân was appointed Nuwâb, or Deputy-Governor, of the Carnatic by Dâûd Khân Pannî (8). He was the first who attempted to make the office hereditary. In 1733 he died at his capital, Arcot; and his nephew, Dôst Alî, succeeded him, without any sanction, however, from Delhi. He relied greatly on the French, as the only European nation whose position at that time commanded respect.

Dôst Alî.

Arcot and Vellore (Vêlur = *javelin town*) were the chief towns of the *Payîn Ghât*, or *Lower* Carnatic.

1719–1747.

By his influence the right of coining was conceded to the French by Muhammad Shâh, the Emperor of Delhi. (Ch. iii. § 15.)

(14.) Meanwhile it must be remembered that Nizâm-ul-Mulk (ch. iii. § 16) was Viceroy of the Dakhan, and Bâjî Râo I. the great Peshwâ of the Mahrattas. (Ch. v. § 53.)

(15.) The most prominent person in the Carnatic, however, at that time, was a son-in-law of Dôst Alî (and his Dîwân), whose name was Chandâ Sahêb, who assumed the position of a free lance, and who was enthusiastically devoted to the French, by whom he was always supported. (See Table, p. 269.)

§ 7. THE NUWÂBS OF THE CARNATIC. [See Ch. vii. viii.]

I. Sîdat-ulla-Khân.[1]
From about 1710. Died 1732.
Adopted two nephews, viz. :—

II. Dôst Alî. Died 1740 at Ambûr. § 7. (18.)

Bâker Alî, Governor of Vellore.

III. Safder Alî. Murdered 1742 by Murteza Alî. § 7 (26.)

Daughter = Murteza Alî.

Daughter = Chandâ Saheb. *A relative of the family.* *Supported by the French. Killed 1752.* His real name was *Husain Dôst Khân.* The other was a familiar nickname. Ch. vii. § 7. (15.)

IV. Seiad Muhammad Khân. Assassinated 1743.

V. Anwâr-ud-Dîn. Appointed by Nizâm-ul-Mulk, 1743. § 7. (26.) Killed at Ambûr, 1750. Ch. viii. § 16.

VI. Muhammad Alî. Supported by the English. Ch. viii. § 17. Died 1795.

VII. Amaut-ul-Omrah. Died 1801. Ch. x. § 44.

VIII. Nephew : Azîm-ud-Daula. Died 1819.

IX. Azîm Jâh. Died 1825.

X. Muhammad Ghôz. Died 1855.[2] He left no heirs, and the title became extinct.

[1] These are called the Newayeteh Nuwâbs. This tribe was, it is said, driven from Arabia to the western shore of India in the eighth century. Newayeteh signifies *New-comer*.

[2] An uncle of the last Nuwâb, whose title is *Azîm Jâh*, is the head of the family. He enjoys a liberal pension (Comp. ch. x. § 33), and has received the title of Prince of the Carnatic.

Chandâ Sahêb's first appearance, 1736.

(16.) In 1736 Chandâ Sahêb made himself master of Trichinopoly by treachery. The Râja of that place had died without heirs; and, a dispute arising, the widow, Mînâkshi Ammâl, applied to Dôst Alî, Nuwâb of Arcot, for assistance. He sent to Chandâ Sahêb, who entered the city, after taking an oath to defend the Râni; but immediately imprisoned her, and assumed the government.

His perjury.

Usurpation.

In the very choultry where he swore the false oath; he was murdered sixteen years after!

(Ch. viii. § 23.)

Kâricâl gained by the French.

(17.) Another affair in which Chandâ Sahêb was concerned led to important results for the French.

The kingdom of Tanjore was held by Sâhujî, a relative of the great Sivajî (see Table, ch. v. § 27), who was about this time dispossessed by a pretended cousin.

Tanjore affairs and Sâhuji. (8 miles S. from Trunquebâr.)

This expelled king offered Dumas the town of *Kâricâl*, and some adjoining villages, as the price of his restoration. Meanwhile, however, he regained his kingdom without French aid. Dumas was disappointed.

1739.

Chandâ Sahêb, however, stepped in, offered Dumas to take the coveted villages from Sâhujî, with whom he was at war, and to make them over to the French. This he did, and from that date (1739) Kâricâl and the neighbouring villages have belonged to France.

This was Sâhuji's first experience of European affairs; it was not his last. (Ch. viii. § 15.)

Mahratta invasion of the Carnatic.

(18.) Meanwhile, the Mahrattas, jealous of these Muhammadan conquests, advanced with a large army into the Carnatic, under Râghujî Bhonslê (ch. v. § 55) and Morârî Râo.

Death of Dôst Alî, 1740. The first battle of Ambûr. (Comp. ch. viii. § 16.)

Dôst Alî met them near Ambûr, at the Dâmalchêri Pass (about 120 miles N.W. of Madras), but was there defeated and slain (1740).

NOTE.—*Ambûr* is fifty miles west of Arcot, and thirty miles south of Dâmalchêri.

The widow of Dôst Alî, with the wife and son of Chandâ Sahêb, found a refuge in Pondicherry.

Safder Alî, the new Nuwâb, sent his wife and children to Madras, having more confidence in the English. He also fortified himself in Vellore.

Safder Alî, son of Dôst Alî, Nuwâb of Arcot, 1740.

The Mahrattas made an engagement with Safder Alî, by which he was recognised as Nuwâb of Arcot, paying a large tribute and assisting the Mahrattas to expel his ambitious brother-in-law, Chandâ Sahêb, from Trichinopoly. (Comp. ch. v. § 53, 55.)

Raghujî and Dumas, 1740.

(19.) M. Dumas now showed his firmness and ability. Threatened by Raghujî with destruction, if he did not consent to surrender the fugitives, he replied that "all the French in India would die first." Meanwhile he put Pondicherry into a state of preparation for a siege.

Assassination of Safder Alî.

(20.) Safder Alî and Chandâ Sahêb met in Pondicherry, from whence the former departed to Arcot, where he was soon assassinated (26); and Chandâ Sahêb to Trichinopoly, where his well-merited punishment was in due time to overtake him. The Mahrattas lost no time in investing Trichinopoly, took Chandâ Sahêb prisoner (March, 1741), and conveyed him to Satârâ, where he languished for seven years in prison. Morârî Râo was left Governor of Trichinopoly.

Chandâ Sahêb a prisoner, 1741. (Ch. viii. § 22.)

Muzaffir Jung and Chandâ Sahêb.

There Chandâ Sahêb formed a romantic friendship with Muzaffir Jung (ch. viii. § 16), a grandson of Nizâm-ul-Mulk.

These were both destined to play an important part in the struggles between the French and the English, to have a temporary triumph, and to perish.

Raghujî before Pondicherry. French firmness and *liqueurs*.

(21.) Raghujî still threatened Pondicherry; but, awed by the firm attitude of M. Dumas, and bribed by a present of French liqueurs, eventually left him unmolested.

Muhammad Shâh. 1741.

This brave resistance to the Mahrattas was M. Dumas' last act; and, amid the praises of all South India, with the thanks of the aged Nizâm-ul-Mulk, of Safder Alî, and of the Emperor himself, who even conferred on

him the title of Nawâb, he resigned his office to M. DUPLEIX.

III. Dupleix in Pondicherry, 1741–1754.

(22.) Dupleix immediately assumed the state of a Nuwâb, proceeded to Chandernagar for installation; and used every effort to strengthen his position.

In the eyes of the natives the French were now supreme, and Pondicherry impregnable.

The War of the Austrian Succession.

1740.

(23.) The war of the Austrian Succession now broke out in Europe, lasting from 1740 to the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748. This war had been long expected; and Dupleix had prepared to strike the blow which should expel the English for ever from India. He had already conceived the idea of founding a French Empire in India.

Shall there be a French empire in India?

The great Albuquerque, the splendid Dupleix, and the heroic Clive, each in his turn, formed the same design. To Clive alone was destined the honour of accomplishing for his country what these two before him had dared to plan for theirs.

IV. La Bourdonnais in Pondicherry, 1746.

1746.

(24.) Meanwhile a worthy coadjutor of Dupleix, who was afterwards to become his rival and enemy, was ready to join him at this eventful period. This was LA BOURDONNAIS (10). Mr. Morse was then Governor of Madras (1744–1749); and a squadron of English ships was cruising in the Indian seas, with the design of ruining the French trade.

His efforts.

La Bourdonnais was at that time Governor of the Isles of France and Bourbon, which, by his skill, energy, and indomitable perseverance, he had brought into a most satisfactory state. By wonderful efforts he contrived to equip and man a squadron of ships; and, in spite of opposition at home and tempests at sea, arrived off Negapatam in 1746, and engaged the English squadron, which unaccountably avoided a general engagement and put into Trincomalee.

(Nâga-pattanam = *Dragon-town*, 20 miles S. of Tranquebâr.)

Preparation for the struggle.

(25.) Madras was thus left exposed (July 1746), while a French fleet was triumphant in the Madras seas.

Dupleix and La Bourdonnais in Pondicherry, and Governor Morse in Madras, were the antagonists.

The struggle between the two nations (which lasted fifteen years) must be detailed in the next chapter. 1746-1761.

(26.) It is necessary here, as a preparation for these details, to glance at the history of the CARNATIC from 1741 to 1746. The Carnatic.

(A.) In 1742 Safder Alî (19) was assassinated by his brother-in-law, the treacherous and cowardly Murteza Alî. His family and treasures were now put under the care of the English. Safder Ali's death. (Mortiz.)

(B.) Seiad Muhammad Khân, his son, succeeded; but, as he was a mere youth, all was anarchy in the province.

(C.) Nizâm-ul-Mulk, Viceroy or Sûbâdâr of the Dakhan in name, but really independent, now thought it time to come and claim arrears of tribute long due. Nizâm-ul-Mulk in the Carnatic 1743.

The English factory at Madras sent a deputation to wait upon him at Trichinopoly; but they were thought too insignificant to obtain an audience.

(D.) After reducing all to order, he left Anwâr-ud-dîn, a veteran officer, to guard the infant Nuwâb (1743), who was, however, assassinated the same year. See Table, p. 269.

(E.) Anwâr-ud-dîn (who was always suspected of complicity in the murder of which he reaped the fruit) was now appointed Nuwâb; and the first use he made of his power was to shield the French from the attacks of the English, on the breaking out of the war. Anwâr-ud-dîn, 1743.

But the time soon came, as we shall see, when the English needed the friendly intervention of the Nuwâb on their own behalf.

(F.) Chandâ Sahêb, it will be remembered, was still in his Mahratta prison, chafing at the thought, that the prize he had coveted so eagerly had been grasped by another, while he was a powerless captive. *His time will come!* Comp. p. 184.

§ 7*. TABLE OF THE EARLY HISTORY OF THE VARIOUS EAST INDIA COMPANIES.

A.D.			
1498	Vasco de Gâma lands at Calicut.		
1510	Conquest of Goa.		Stevens in Goa (1579).
1515	Death of Albuquerque.		Union of Utrecht (1579).
From 1580 to 1640	Portugal under Spain.		Dutch E. I. Comp. estab. (1595.)
1594	——	——	Dutch send ships to India.
1599	——	——	Synod of Diamper.
1600	British East India Company.		
1604	——	First French expedition.	
1605	——	——	Dutch supreme in E. Archipelago.
1608	Hawkins in Sûrat.		
1610	——	——	Batavia founded.
1615	Embassy of Sir T. Roe.		
1616	——	——	Danes buy Tranquebâr (1617).
1624	Power of life and death given to the E. I. Company.		
1636	Surgeon Boughton.		
1639	Madras founded.		
1654	Fort St. George (Madras) constituted a presidency.	——	
1661	Charles II. gives new charter.		Dutch take Ceylon (1656).
1664	Oxenden defends Sûrat.	French East India Company formed.	
1668	Bombay made over to East India Company.		
1672	——	French in Mauritius, &c.	
1674	——	Pondicherry founded.	

EARLY HISTORY OF EAST INDIA COMPANIES—*cont.*

1687	Bombay made the English capital.		[*N.B.*—In 1716 a company, called the Ostend East India Company, was established. It lasted for 11 years only.]
1688	Tea-trade sprung up.		
1696	Calcutta, &c., bought.		
1698	The second Company formed; and the foundation of Fort William.		
1702	Amalgamation of Companies.		
1715	Surgeon Hamilton.		
1735	——	Dumas in Pondicherry.	
1739	——	French in Kâricâl.	Mahrattas take Bassein.
1741	——	Dupleix in Pondicherry.	
1746	Madras taken.	Paradis gains battle of St. Thomé.	

CHAPTER VIII.

1746-1761.

THE RIVALRIES AND WARS OF THE FRENCH AND ENGLISH EAST INDIA COMPANIES, FROM A.D. 1746, TO THE SURRENDER OF PONDICHERRY TO THE ENGLISH, A.D. 1761.

PART I.—1746-1748. THE CAPTURE OF MADRAS TO THE PEACE OF AIX-LA-CHAPELLE.

1744-1748.

§ 1. The period from 1744 to the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle was an eventful one for India. The two greatest nations of Europe are beginning to struggle for supremacy upon Indian ground. The conqueror will rule in time from sea to sea.

La Bourdonnais and Dupleix meet in India, 1746.

§ 2. We have seen the able and gallant naval commander LA BOURDONNAIS, after the departure of the English fleet, land in Pondicherry.

He and Dupleix met on the 8th July 1746.

Profession and practice.

His words were:—"We ought to regard one another as equally interested in the progress of events, and to work in concert. For my part, sir, I devote myself to you beforehand, and

swear to you a perfect confidence." Yet the disunion of these two at last ruined their cause. With it we may contrast the generous conduct of Lawrence and Clive.

§ 3. Dupleix was a genius; a man of lofty, chivalrous mind; a great statesman, full of the most brilliant conceptions; but no warrior. La Bourdonnais was a soldier, ardent and impetuous; but not possessed of the transcendent abilities of Dupleix. The latter, too, was supreme in India, though at sea the former was independent. Their characters.

Dupleix was greatly assisted by his wife, whose name was *Jeanne*, which she changed into Jehân Begum. She was of French extraction, born in Bengâl, and was very useful to him from her knowledge of native languages and manners. The wife of Dupleix.

§ 4. After some delays, by no means creditable to La Bourdonnais, Dupleix prevailed upon him to advance to attack Madras; where Governor Morse in vain prayed Anwâr-ud-dîn, the Nuwâb of the Carnatic, to interfere for the protection of the English as he had formerly done in behalf of the French. He had the mortification, too, to hear that the English fleet had actually sailed for Bengâl. The first siege of Madras, 1746. (The second Jacobite rebellion. The battles of FALKIRK and CULLODEN MOOR.)

La Bourdonnais had with him 4,000 men, of whom 400 were sepoys, 400 Africans, and the remainder Europeans; while the English garrison consisted of but 300 or 400 men, and the fortifications were of the slightest description.

On the 21st of September, Governor Morse, therefore, was compelled to capitulate. The whole of the English became prisoners of war; the town and all in it, with its dependencies, were made over to the French: conditions of ransom were to be settled afterwards. "*The French did not lose a man in the siege; the English only five.*" Thus Madras was taken, 107 years after its foundation. Capitulation.

The city ransomed. The bribe.

The fate of the captured city had now to be decided by the French leaders. La Bourdonnais, influenced by a bribe of 100,000 pagodas, agreed to allow the English to ransom the city for four lakhs and 40,000 rupees.

Unpatriotic conduct of La Bourdonnais.

Dupleix refused his consent; as his wish was to drive the English out of India; and, if the conquest of Madras had been followed up, this might have been effected. A storm meanwhile shattered the French fleet, and La Bourdonnais, hastily signing the treaty, set sail on the 29th October, having spent about four months on the Indian coast. Having thus thrown away the opportunity of completely crushing the enemies of his country, and of gaining for himself undying fame, he returned to France, and was thrown into the Bastille, where he remained three years; and though acquitted, he died of a broken heart in 1753.

Conclusion of the history of La Bourdonnais, 1746–1753.

We may lament his fate; but it was hardly undeserved.

The Nuwâb of Arcot interferes.

§ 5. Anwâr-ud-dîn had been no unconcerned spectator of the capture of Madras. Jealous of French aggrandisement, though inclined to favour them, he sent a messenger to Dupleix commanding the French to desist, and threatening to interfere with an armed force.

Dupleix deceives the Nuwâb.

Dupleix unhesitatingly replied, that he was only besieging the town for the Nuwâb, to whom he would surrender it when taken. But, when five weeks had passed, and the French flag still floated over the ramparts of Fort St. George, Anwâr sent an army to enforce his claims. Dupleix determined not to surrender the place till he had destroyed the fort; and accordingly gave orders to the French officer in command to hold his ground against the Nuwâb's army.

1746.

The result was a defeat to the Nuwâb's forces, that should have taught him of how little value his army was before a handful of Europeans. M. Paradis (by

Paradis, the fifth great Frenchman.

V. The great victory of M. PARADIS. The Battle of St. Thomé. Nov. 4.

no means the least of the remarkable Frenchmen who have distinguished themselves in India), with 230 Europeans and 700 native sepoys, put to utter route the Nuwâb's army of ten thousand men, under his son, Mâphuz Khân.

Dupleix master of the situation.

This action (which might have been the French Plassey) made Dupleix for a time the Nuwâb's master.

Dupleix breaks the Treaty.

§ 6. Dupleix now utterly disavowed the treaty made by La Bourdonnais, and appointed Paradis Governor of Madras. The English prisoners were sent to Pondicherry. Some escaped to Fort St. David, a fortified town twelve miles south of Pondicherry, bought by the English in 1691, and now become the chief place occupied by the British on the Coromandel Coast. Among these latter was Ensign Clive, then in his 21st year.

Fort St. David.

Clive.

Fort St. David attacked.

§ 7. The next thing, of course, was for the French to attack Fort St. David. The attack failed, and was not resumed when opportunity presented itself. Meanwhile Admiral Griffin, with his fleet, appeared on the coast, threatening Pondicherry, and the English were saved.

Admiral Griffin.

The capture of Madras was of no real use to the French.

Peace between Dupleix and the Nuwâb.

§ 8. Dupleix managed, in the interval, to make peace with the Nuwâb, whose assistance did not, however, materially benefit him; for, when the French cause seemed to be desperate, he did not hesitate to forsake their alliance for that of the English.

Defence of Cuddalôr, 1747, 1748.

§ 9. We cannot give the details of the defence of Cuddalôr, attacked by Dupleix, in which the skill of the veteran Major Stringer Lawrence, who had recently arrived (Jan. 1748) to command the English forces in India, was conspicuous.

CH. VIII. § 10, 13. A.D. 1748.

First siege of Pondicherry.

The attack of Ariankûpam. *Lawrence* taken prisoner.

§ 10. Two miles from Pondicherry is a small place called Ariankûpam. This place, fortified by the skill of Paradis and defended by Law, was attacked by the English, who were at first repulsed, and Lawrence was taken prisoner. In the end, the French were compelled to abandon it and retire to Pondicherry, where they were now closely besieged.

The first siege of Pondicherry, 1748. Boscowen. Dupleix makes great efforts.

§ 11. Admiral Boscowen, grand-nephew of the great Marlborough, was commander-in-chief of the English forces, both naval and military; but the wonderful qualities of Dupleix enabled him for five weeks to baffle every effort of the English leader, who was inexperienced in military operations. Paradis fell early in the siege. On Dupleix all depended; glorious and successful was his defence.

Death of Paradis. The siege raised.

CLIVE. (He obtained his Commission in 1747.)

It was here that "ensign" Clive first gave indications of that wonderful military genius to which British India owes so much.

Dupleix triumphant.

§ 12. Dupleix had for the time saved his country's cause, and far and wide did he cause the note of triumph to be heard. All India resounded with acclamations, and the French were everywhere regarded as the greatest of European powers.

1748. The Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. Dupleix mortified.

§ 13. The news of the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle now reached India. Madras was to be restored to its English masters; and all things were to revert to the position in which they were before the breaking out of the war in 1744. Bitter was the mortification of Dupleix; but his genius will yet devise other methods for carrying out his cherished plan of expelling the hated English, and founding a French Empire in India.

Will they succeed?

India in 1748. CH. VIII. § 14. A.D. 1748.

§ 14. Let us, before we seek an answer to this question, take a survey of the state of affairs in India (in 1748), at the time of the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. — Picture of India in 1748.

(1.) The twelfth Mogul emperor, *Muhammad Shâh*, the last who possessed even the semblance of power, died in April 1748. The puppet emperor who succeeded him was the victim of the Mahrattas and of his own viceroys. From this time there was no real Emperor of Delhi. (Ch. iii. § 18.) — Moguls. Delhi.

Nâdir Shâh was assassinated June 8, 1747.

(2.) *Sâhu*, the grandson of Sivaji (Table, p. 172) died also in 1748 (ch. v. § 59); and under the third Peshwâ, Bâlâji Râo, now really supreme, the Mahratta power was attaining its greatest extent of dominion. There were four great leaders, Holkâr, Sindia, Rajhuji, and Damaji Gâekwâr. — Mahrattas.

(4.) *Nizâm-ul-mulk* died in June 1748, aged 104 years. The dignity of Viceroy, or Sûbâdâr of the Dakhan, having become hereditary in his family, this portion of the empire may now be considered to have been finally rent from it. — Nizâm-ul-Mulk.

The struggle for the succession between his sons led to the most momentous results. (Table, ch. iii. § 16.) — The disputed succession.

(5.) Chandâ Sahêb was liberated the same year, and came down to wrest, if he could, the Nuwâbship of Arcot from Anwâr-ud-dîn. (See Table, p. 269.) — Chandâ Sahêb. [Ch. viii. § 7 (15).]

(6.) *La Bourdonnais* was in the Bastille. *Dupleix*, baffled and disappointed, but, in the eyes of all the native powers, covered with glory, is devising new schemes for the aggrandisement of France. — La Bourdonnais. Dupleix.

(7.) *Clive* is an ensign. (Born September 29, 1725; landed in India 1744.) The English, taught by the example of the French, are beginning to train sepoys. *Warren Hastings*, the future Governor-General (born 1732), came to India in 1750. The veteran *Major Lawrence* (Governor of Madras in 1749) sails for England in 1750; to return (in 1752), and with the young hero, Clive, to do great things. — Clive. Hastings. Lawrence.

(8.) In Bengâl, Bahâr, and Orissa, *Alî-vardî Khân* has made good his position; and is ruling with a degree of talent and justice that reconciles the people to his usurpation. (Ch. iii. § 15.) — 1740-1756. Alî-vardî-Khân.

(9.) Oudh is in the power of Sâdat Khân's nephew, *Safdar Jung* (ch. iii. § 18), who is independent; though he condescends to call himself Vazîr of the Empire. — Oudh. Safdar Jung.

Rohilkhand. (10.) In Rohilkhand the Afghâns have become virtually independent.

Hyder. (11.) In Mysore, Haidar was now a rising chief. His son, Tippû, was born in 1750. (Ch. xii. § 11–13.)

PART II.—From the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle to the Defence of Arcot.

Tanjore disputes, 1741. **§ 15.** In 1748 Sâhujî, ex-Râja of Tanjore [ch. vii. § 7 (17)], who had been dispossessed by Pratâb Sing (his illegitimate brother), applied to the English to restore him to his rightful possessions. He offered, as the price of their assistance, Dêvi Kôta (at the mouth of the Colleroon) and the surrounding territory. They consented, and dispatched a body of troops to restore Sâhujî. It was found that the people, who had suffered much under his weak rule, were averse to his return; but, after an unsuccessful attempt, the English notwithstanding sent Major Lawrence to storm Dêvi Kôta. This he effected; but Pratâb Sing now came forward, offered to confirm the captors in the possession of the fort and territory, and to give a pension to the ex-Râja, who retired to Madras.

Dêvi Kôta taken by the English. (= *the Fort of the Goddess.* It is 37 miles S. from Pondicherry.)

It will be seen that the English thus led the way, though feebly, and without either dignity or consistency, in the adoption of that policy of *interfering in the disputes of native princes*, which Dupleix, with well-matured plans, afterwards adopted on such a gigantic scale.

The disputes in the Dakhan. **§ 16.** On the death of Nizâm-ul-mulk, his eldest son (see Table, p. 132), preferred to remain at court (ch. iii. § 18); and the succession of the Sûbâdârship of the Dakhan fell, according to his grandfather's supposed will, to Muzaffir Jung. But Nazîr Jung, the second

son, who had already rebelled against his father, seized the treasures, gained over the army, and proclaimed himself viceroy.

In fact, six uncles of Muzaffir were his rivals.

Muzaffir and Chandâ Sahêb meet.

The dispossessed Muzaffir repaired to Satârâ to seek Mahratta aid, met there with Chandâ Sahêb, who was impatiently beating his wings against the bars of his prison; and the two wrote to Dupleix, under whose protection Chandâ's wife and family were living in Pondicherry. [Ch. vii. § 7 (18).]

Chandâ Sahêb's release.

Dupleix promptly negotiated Chandâ Sahêb's release; paid the ransom, seven lakhs of rupees, and sent an army of 400 Europeans and 2,000 sepoys towards Ambûr, where Anwâr-ud-dîn (now in his 107th year), at the head of 20,000 troops, was posted. There the French were joined by the released Chandâ (who was burning with impatience to gain for himself a kingdom) with 6,000 troops, and by Muzaffir Jung with 30,000.

The French scheme.

Their plan was to defeat and dethrone Anwâr-ud-dîn, seat Chandâ Sahêb on the throne of Arcot; and then, with the combined forces of the Carnatic and the French, to oppose Nazîr Jung, and place Muzaffir on the throne of the Dakhan.

Two aspirants to power.

The Second Battle of Ambûr, 1750. [Comp. ch. vii. § 7 (18).]

The plan was successful. The French leader, M. D'Auteuil, was murdered; but his place was taken by the French Clive, Bussy; Anwâr-ud-dîn and his eldest son were killed fighting gallantly; and the whole of his camp, artillery, and stores fell into the hands of Chandâ Sahêb, who took possession of Arcot the next day.

Death of Anwâr-ud-dîn.

The French party is triumphant.

Muzaffir Jung now proclaimed himself Viceroy of the Dakhan, and appointed Chandâ Sahêb Nuwâb of the Carnatic.

French triumphs.

Both then repaired to Pondicherry to offer their thanks to Dupleix, accompanied with the substantial gift of eighty-one villages around Pondicherry. Eight days were spent in magnificent festivities, in which the

tokens of French wealth and power were ostentatiously exhibited to the princely victors.

Thus the curtain falls at the end of the first act of this changeful drama.

The rival Nuwâbs.

§ 17. The younger son of Anwâr-ud-dîn, Muhammad Alî, had escaped and fled to Trichinopoly. The question is a difficult one, whether he or Chandâ Sahêb was the rightful Nuwâb?

It must be remembered that these officers were appointed by the Sûbâdâr, but their appointment required confirmation by the Emperor. The office was not *hereditary* under the Moguls.

Muhammad Alî asks for English aid.

Muhammad Alî sought help from the English governor, Mr. Floyer, who naturally hesitated to engage in so momentous a conflict.

Chandâ Sahêb delays.

The conquest of Trichinopoly and the capture of Muhammad Alî would have insured Chandâ Sahêb's final triumph; but he delayed, turned aside to plunder Tanjore, and allowed himself to be detained there until Nazîr Jung, with a vast army, aided by the Mahrattas and by Major Lawrence, with 600 Englishmen, was in the field.

Nazîr Jung's victory.

Chandâ Sahêb, Muzaffir Jung, and their French allies were now compelled to retreat. There was disaffection among the French, and distrust everywhere.

Muzaffir prisoner. The Battle of Valdâr, April 1750.

At Valdâr, in the neighbourhood of Pondicherry, they were routed; Muzaffir was taken prisoner; and Nazîr Jung, now undisputed Viceroy of the Dakhan, took possession of Arcot, and proclaimed Muhammad Alî, Nuwâb of the Carnatic.

The French utterly cast down.

Thus ends the second act in the great drama. The French and English have fairly taken their sides. For the moment Dupleix is mortified; while Lawrence and Clive are triumphant. Nazîr Jung is viceroy, and Muhammad Alî is Nuwâb; while Chandâ Sahêb is a fugitive in Pondicherry, and Muzaffir is in irons in his uncle's camp.

§ 18. Dupleix, nevertheless, maintained a firm attitude; sent envoys to Nazîr Jung, who were instructed to demand all that they could in fact have asked if they had been victors, and to tamper with the fidelity of the chiefs that made up his army. The Nuwâbs of Kadapa, Kurnûl, and Savanûr and other leaders were thus corrupted.

The firmness of Dupleix.

Corruption.

NOTE.—1. KADAPA (Cuddapa, Prop. *Kripa* = *mercy*, often KÛRPA). Here was a small independent Patân state.
2. KURNÛL (*Kandanâl*), on the Tûmbhadra. It was given as a Jaghîr by Aurungzîb, in 1651, to the father of Dâûd Khân Panni. (Ch. iii. § 10.)
3. SAVANÛR (Shâhnûr). The capital of a small Patân state, forty miles S.E. from Dhârwâr.

Kadapa.

Kurnûl.

Savanûr.

The French troops too had come to a better mind, and all were burning to wipe off the disgrace of their late defeat.

Moreover Muhammad Alî, who was timid and irresolute, refused to be guided by his English allies. They in consequence left him; and the result was an overwhelming defeat on the banks of the Punâr, a few miles from Cuddalôr.

Muhammad Alî defeated.

The Battle of the Punâr. Sept. 1, 1750.

The storming of Ginjî, to which place the scattered remnant of Muhammad Alî's forces had retired, raised the reputation of the French to its highest point. It was always considered to be impregnable, strongly entrenched between its three hills, each crowned with a citadel. Bussy stormed it in twenty-four hours.

The storming of Ginji, 1750. (85 miles N.W. from Pondicherry.)

VI.
Bussy.
Born 1718.

This was an achievement that might be the precursor of the most signal triumphs.

Nazîr Jung, sunk as he was in debauchery, and incapable of pursuing any consistent plan, was startled for the moment into something like vigorous effort. His mind was made up to come to terms with Dupleix, to make any concession, so that the French king-maker would only allow him to remain in a position where he could gratify every desire of his sensual soul.

Nazir Jung aroused.

But, meanwhile, a conspiracy to liberate Muzaffir, and to murder Nazîr Jung had been formed. The

Nazir Jung murdered.

Muzaffir enthroned.

conspirators were to desert, display the French standard, and to fall upon their master. While Nazîr Jung was awaiting an answer to his offers of submission from Dupleix, the French moved to the attack under M. de la Touche; and Nazîr Jung, on an elephant, took up his position with the captive Muzaffir on another elephant, guarded by an officer, who was ordered to behead his prisoner on the first appearance of treason; but who, fortunately for Muzaffir, was himself one of the traitors. In the midst of the action the traitors displayed the French standard, and Nazîr Jung gave instant orders to behead Muzaffir; but was himself shot through the heart by the Nuwâb of Kadapa, and his head laid at the feat of Muzaffir, who had expected a similar fate. The prisoner, over whom the sword had been hanging, found himself suddenly, not only free, but a mighty ruler; and resolved to march at once to Pondicherry to thank and consult the now triumphant Dupleix.

Table p. 132.

Four of Muzaffir's uncles were at the camp at the time in imprisonment.

Pondicherry was intoxicated with joy. This was in 1750.

Thus ended the third act of the imperial drama.

The arrogant triumph of Dupleix.

(About 16 miles N.W. of Ginji.)

His city and pillar.

§ 19. Dupleix followed up his now assured triumph by ordering the building of a town on the battle-field, the scene of Nazîr Jung's assassination, to be called Dupleix-fattih-abâd, *the town of the victory of Dupleix*, with a pillar bearing on its four sides laudatory inscriptions in different languages. The town was scarcely built, when the pillar was, as we shall see, demolished by Clive (§ 23). Magnificent presents were given to Dupleix and to the French East India Company; while another installation, more imposing than the former, took place in Pondicherry.

Dupleix now desired peace; but peace there could not be while Muhammad Alî was the rival Nuwâb of the Carnatic. This difficulty seemed to be removed, when Muhammad himself proposed to acknowledge Chandâ Sahêb, if his father's treasures were given him, and another government assigned to him in the Dakhan.

Muhammed Ali himself is willing to resign.

§ 20. In January 1751, Muzaffir left Pondicherry for Aurungâbâd, which was to be his capital. Bussy was to accompany him, at his own request, with a body of French troops, and to reside at his court. This arrangement, of course, made the French masters of the Dakhan.

Bussy marches to the Dakhan.

On the march, when near Kadapa, the same three Nuwâbs, who were leaders in the conspiracy against Nazîr Jung, conspired, for reasons not clearly ascertainable, to murder Muzaffir, whom they had before saved. A conflict ensued, in which Muzaffir was killed by the Nuwâb of Kurnûl. There happened to be in the camp, in irons, another son of Nizâm-ul-mulk, called Salâbat Jung (Table, p. 132). Bussy lost no time in releasing him and placing him on the throne.

Muzaffir Jung murdered. Salâbat succeeds.

Such were the rapid changes of those eventful times.

Salâbat Jung made Sûbâdâr.

Bussy succeeded in conducting Salâbat in safety to Aurungâbâd; where, on the 29th of June 1751, he was installed as Sûbâdâr of the Dakhan. Bussy remained with him, the master-spirit of his court: and thus a Frenchman, at this period, really ruled the Dakhan.

The successor to Nizâm-ul-mulk at last on the throne.

§ 21. The year 1751 thus far seemed destined to be a most glorious year for France, and an equally disgraceful one to England. The vast territory ruled over by the Nizâm was in the power of a French general. The Northern Sirkârs were really French; since that nation possessed a strong force in Masulipatam. Chandâ

Triumphant position of the French at the beginning of 1751.

Sahêb, whom Dupleix had released and elevated to his present dignity, was Nuwâb of the Carnatic; while Muhammad Alî had consented to abdicate. The English now held nothing in the Carnatic but Madras, Fort St. David, and Dêvi Kota, and had lost any reputation they had ever acquired among the natives; they had, in truth, hardly one respectable name to oppose to those of *Martin, Dumas, La Bourdonnais, Paradis, Bussy, and Dupleix.* Yet, to these the historian of the French in India can add but one other distinguished name, that of the rash and unfortunate Lally, who witnessed the final downfall of French power in India; while Lawrence, Clive, and Hastings, whose career had then scarcely begun, were the first names in a long roll of English heroes, statesmen, and administrators, of unrivalled fame.

This year, 1851, is the critical year in South Indian history.

PART III.—The Defence of Arcot to the Departure of Dupleix from India. 1751–1754.

The French and English begin the struggle.

§ 22. Muhammad Alî, though seemingly intent on making terms with Chandâ Sahêb and the French, was secretly urging the English to aid him; and, at length, obtaining a reluctant promise of renewed help from them, he determined to defend himself in Trichinopoly. Dupleix, for his part, resolved to assist Chandâ Sahêb with all his available resources. The English, too, fairly roused at last, made up their minds to support Muhammad Alî to the utmost of their power. Everything turned on the siege of Trichinopoly; and when the siege of that city became a blockade, and the English were dispirited, it must have been taken, if the genius of Lieutenant Robert Clive had not completely changed the aspect of affairs (1751).

All depends on Trichinopoly. It is on the point of surrendering. Clive appears.

He recommended to the Governor of Madras, Mr. Saunders (1751–1755), who was a man of firmness and judgment, a plan which he had devised for relieving Trichinopoly, by carrying the war into the enemy's own country. With 500 men, of whom 200 only were Europeans, and a few light guns, Clive, not more than twenty-five years of age, with officers none of whom had ever been in action, took possession of *Arcot;* put it into a posture of defence; and, though his force was reduced to 320 men and four officers, made good his position for seven weeks, against 10,000 men headed by Râja Sahêb, the son of Chandâ Sahêb.

The defence of Arcot by Clive, 1751.

Mr. Saunders.

Clive's resources.

(On the Pâlâr, 68 miles W.S.W. from Madras.)

The people, seeing Clive and his men march steadily in a storm of thunder and lightning, said they were fire-proof, and fled before him. The hero contemptuously refused Râja Sahêb's bribes, and laughed at his threats. When provisions failed in the besieged town, the sepoys came with a request that they might cook the rice, retaining for themselves only the water it was boiled in, handing over every grain of it to the Europeans, who required, they said, more solid food. Such self-denial and heroic zeal had Clive's influence inspired in these men. Morârî Râo, the Mahratta chief of Gûti, and his 6,000 men, who were not far from Ambûr, waiting to see the course of events, joined Clive, saying, "Since the English can so nobly help themselves, we will help them." Mr. Saunders exerted himself energetically to aid the gallant garrison; and, after a desperate assault, in which he lost 400 men, Râja Sahêb raised the siege. The moral effect of this memorable defence was incalculable.

The fidelity of the sepoys.

(Comp. ch. v. § 55, p. 184.)

§ 23. After this, Clive's course was one of continuous victories. On the 25th March 1752, he demolished the town and pillar of Dupleix (§ 19), a measure of importance, as destroying in the eyes of the natives the impression of French supremacy.

Clive's triumphant progress, 1752.

On the 26th March, Lawrence again landed in India. And now the English force marched to relieve Trichinopoly, under Lawrence, the experienced, scientific, veteran soldier, and his subordinate Clive, the youthful

Return of Lawrence.

The Veteran and the Genius!

hero, and untaught genius; trusting one another and co-operating, without a particle of envy or impatience on either side. An instructive sight!

It should be noted here, that when the Directors voted to Clive, on his first return, a sword of the value of £500, he refused to receive it, till a similar honour had been conferred on General Lawrence. He also settled upon his old commander a pension of £500 a year, when the latter retired.

The French siege of Trichinopoly raised.

Remember, Muhammad Alî was blockaded in Trichinopoly. Chandâ Sahêb and Law (the vain and incapable) were pressing the siege. Lawrence and Clive were hastening to its relief. Dupleix and Saunders were at Pondicherry and Madras, making prodigious efforts to aid their respective armies. Bussy, the French Clive, who might have changed the aspect of affairs, was, alas! for the French, in Aurungâbâd.

After many struggles, Law and the whole besieging force were invested in Srîrangam, a small island, on which stands a very famous temple of Vishnu, and within a long cannon-shot of the Fort of Trichinopoly. The result was that, on the 13th June 1752, Law and his

Surrender of Law.

force of 785 Frenchmen and 2,000 sepoys surrendered, with forty-one pieces of cannon and all military stores, to Lawrence, acting for Muhammad Alî.

Death of Chandâ Sahêb June 11, 1752.

Chandâ Sahêb had given himself up on the 11th to the Tanjôr commander, Manockjî, who stabbed him to the heart; and his head was laid at the feet of his triumphant rival.

[Comp. ch. vii. § 7. (16.)]

It was afterwards given to *Nandi Râj*, the Mysôr commander, who sent it to Seringapatam, where it was exposed over one of the gates for three days. Thus ended the career of this able, but unscrupulous man. Superior to most about him, free from the sordid and sensual vices of many of his contemporaries, we might have desired for him a better fate!

Thus too finally fell to the ground the plans of Dupleix for the settlement of the Carnatic. He should now at least have allowed peace to be made.

Summary of events from 1752 to 1754.

§ 24. We will here briefly sum up the history of events in the Carnatic, from this famous 13th June

End of Dupleix.

1752, to the departure of Dupleix from India, October 14, 1754. It is simply the history of unwearied but abortive efforts on his part to retrieve his cause.

The Râja of Tanjôr, Pratâb Sîng; the Râja of Mysôr's General, Nandirâj (with whom was Haidar Naik, the future usurper); and Morârî Râo with his Mahrattas, had hitherto aided Muhammad Alî. These Dupleix contrived to detach from the English side. He even tampered with Muhammad Alî himself. He at the same time negotiated for peace with Mr. Saunders, who refused however to concede any one of the disputed points.

(Ch. xii. § 11.)

Dupleix tampers with the allies of the English.

About this time he received from Salâbat Jung a firman containing his own appointment as Nuwâb of the Carnatic and of all south of the Kishtna. Thus emboldened, Dupleix nominated Râja Sahêb (son of Chandâ Sahêb) his deputy; and finding him utterly worthless, appointed Murteza Alî [ch. vii. § 7 (26)], who readily accepted the nomination.

Dupleix made Nuwâb.

Clive, after the heroic capture of the forts of *Covelong* and Chingleput, accomplished with the most wretched troops, in the most astonishing manner, left for England in 1753; but Lawrence, feeble in health, yet with undiminished energies as a commander, remained.

Clive returns to England, 1753. (On the sea coast, 22 miles S. from Madras.)

The French wrote Dupleix complimentary letters, and made him a Marquis; but sent him no efficient aid.

The "Prince," with reinforcements, commanded by De la Touche, was burnt at sea.

700 men burnt at sea, 1752.

Another siege of Trichinopoly was now undertaken, in which the English under Lawrence were the successful defenders; and this siege, marked by many most gallant conflicts, lasted till the truce preceding the peace of January 1755.

The Second siege of Trichinopoly, 1752–1755.

Meanwhile Dupleix had lost the confidence of the French Government. It must be remembered, that, while all this fighting was going on in India, England

Dupleix recalled.

and France were at peace! Saunders, not without reason, wrote to the English directors; who communicated with the Minister; who, in turn, urged it upon the French Government, that there could not be peace in India, or commercial prosperity, while the restless and ambitious Dupleix was in Pondicherry. M. Godeheu was accordingly sent to replace him. Whatever may have been the errors of this great man, he was now treated with injustice and contumely, which he bore with dignity and firmness. He left India, October 14, 1754, a ruined man; *for he had spent more than his all in this desperate struggle.*

Death of Dupleix, 1764.

He died broken-hearted, in the utmost poverty, at Paris, November 10, 1764.

PART IV.—1754–1761. From the Appointment of Godeheu to the Final Ruin of the French Cause in India.

Truce between French and English.

§ 25. A truce was now agreed upon, October 1754, and a peace followed. Neither party was to interfere further in the concerns of the native princes. The possessions of the two countries in India were to be equalised. Muhammad Alî remained Nuwâb of the Carnatic. The plans of Dupleix were definitely abandoned. Bussy continued in the Dakhan, and the English supported their Nuwâb; but avowed hostilities between the two nations ceased for the present.

Treaty.

This treaty was signed January 11, 1755. Godeheu —like Cornwallis and Sir G. Barlow in 1805—with feverish haste sacrificed all for peace. Saunders, to whom England owes a debt of gratitude for his un-

Saunders.

wavering firmness in resisting Dupleix, and for the tact and skill with which he conducted all the negotiations, had the merit of bringing about this result so favourable to England.

§ 26. Peace did not continue long between France and England. Absolute cessation of military operations there was in fact none. The last struggle of the rival companies, however, began in January 1757, and ended in January 1761. The great names connected with it are Clive, Bussy, Count Lally, Colonel Forde, and Sir Eyre Coote.

The last struggle, 1757–1761.

(French War from 1756 to 1763.)

The English assisted the Nuwâb of the Carnatic, Muhammad Alî (of course the French governor no longer bore the title), to collect his tribute in the south from the refractory poligars. The French, in like manner, interfered to assist the Mysôr regent to collect his dues. Both, in fact, infringed the conditions of the treaty.

Treaty violated, 1755.

§ 27. Meanwhile, Clive, now a lieutenant-colonel, had arrived in India a second time, as Governor of Fort St. David. Admiral Watson was sent with a fleet to watch over English interests.

Clive again in India, 1755.

Their first business, however, before proceeding to the Coromandel Coast, was to reduce the Fort of Gheriah and dislodge the famous pirate, Tulajî Angria. This was gallantly and effectively done; and thus commerce was freed from a great danger on the western coast. (Ch. v. § 65.)

Clive arrived in Madras in May 1756, and took charge of Fort St. David on the 20th of June, the very day of the Black Hole massacre.

It was at this time that a king's regiment, the 39th Foot, was sent to India. It was soon followed by the 70th Foot. The former was at Plassey, and still bears on its colours the motto, *Primus in Indis*: first in India.

§ 28. Soon after this, events in Bengâl called Clive and Watson thither. (Ch. ix. § 6.) Clive never ceased to feel an interest in Madras affairs, and constantly corresponded with his old friends there.

A large French force was also sent to Haiderâbâd to assist Bussy. (Ch. iii. § 16.) Neither party could do much at this time in the Carnatic.

The Seven Years' War breaks out, 1756–1763.

Ministry of William Pitt the Elder, 1756–1761.

§ 29. In the end of 1756 came the long-expected tidings of the breaking out of war between France and England. It was the seven years' war, destined to strip France of all territory and power in both the East and West; the war in which Wolff won Quebec, and Coote took Pondicherry.

VII. Lally, the destroyer of French influence in India. Decay of the French. (*Plassey, June 23, 1757.*)

§ 30. *Lally* was the man destined by the French Government to drive the English out of India.

He was, however, to see the final overthrow of French power in India. He landed in Pondicherry in April 1758. His powers were all but absolute. It was unfortunate for him that he superseded many of the older officers, and, among others, Bussy. Lally knew nothing of India, and heartily despised all of every race who dwelt in it. He found Pondicherry full of corruption. There was neither ability nor honesty among those who should have seconded Lally's efforts. More especially the admiral, the Count d'Aché, failed to co-operate with him effectually. Yet in a few weeks he took Fort St. David. Bussy joined him soon after from the Dakhan, but seemed to have no other desire than to take care of his immense gains. His recall was a deathblow to the French interests in the Dakhan. (See ch. iii. § 16.)

The second siege of Madras, 1758.

(Ch. x. § 9.)

After an ill-managed expedition to Tanjôr, it was resolved to attack Madras, which was invested in December 1758.

Mr. (afterwards Lord) Pigot (Governor of Madras,

1756–1763), the veteran Lawrence, Major Calliaud, and others, were the defenders of the city.

The besiegers were ill-disciplined and disaffected; and, in spite of Lally's efforts, no progress was made; until the arrival of Admiral Pocock in the roadstead with the English fleet compelled the French to raise the siege, and to retreat towards Pondicherry in a miserable plight. (February 1759.)

Siege of Madras raised.

§ 31. In 1759 fresh troops arrived from England, under Colonel EYRE COOTE, one of the heroes of British Indian warfare. Lawrence had sailed for England in ill health.

Colonel Eyre Cooto, Nov. 21, 1759.

Lally tried to set up Bussâlat Jung, brother of Salâbat Jung (see Table, p. 132), as Nuwâb of the Carnatic; but this prince had ceased to trust or respect the French, and the scheme failed.

The great campaign began in December 1759, and the struggle at Wandiwash (Vandivâsam) was the decisive battle, which destroyed for ever the idea of a French empire in India.

The Battle of Wandiwash. (73 miles S.W. from Madras.)

[Comp. ch. xii. § 28.]

(*French loss of Quebec, Montreal, and all Canada, 1759, 1760.*)

Lally and Bussy attacked this town with a force of 1,350 European infantry and 150 cavalry. *The native troops refused to engage.*

Coote hastened to the relief, with 1,900 Europeans, of whom 80 were cavalry; and 3,350 natives.

(*Death of George II.*, 1760.)

The French were defeated (Jan. 22, 1760) and never again rallied. Bussy was taken prisoner.

(*Alamgír II. put to death by Ghází-ud-dín*, 1760.)

Bussy a prisoner.

Of him we hear once again. He returned to India in 1783 (ch. xii. § 35) to fight again against Coote, failed as before, and died in the Carnatic.

Coote's course was now one of continuous success. Chittapet, Arcot, Timery, Dêvi-Kôta, Trincomalee, Alampârva, Kâricâl, Chillumbrum, and Cuddalôr fell successively into his hands; and in January 1761, Pondicherry surrendered. Lally was sent a prisoner to Madras; and thus ended the schemes and labours of

Pondicherry taken. (*Timery* is 6 miles S.W. of Arcot.) (Ch. xii. § 17.)

Lally a prisoner.

CH. VIII. § 32. A.D. 1760.

Summary of the Chapter.

(*Haidar usurped the Kingdom of Mysór, June 1761.*)

Martin, Paradis, La Bourdonnais, Dupleix, Dumas, Bussy, and Lally.

Pondicherry was restored to the French in 1763, at the Peace of Paris. Muhammad Alî was acknowledged Nuwâb of the Carnatic, and Salâbat Jung, Sûbâdâr of the Dakhan at the same time.

It was again taken, 1778, on the breaking out of the war on account of America, and held till the peace of Versailles, 1783. Once more seized in 1793, it was held by the English till the peace of Amiens in 1802.

Death of Lally.

Lally was himself beheaded in Paris in 1766; and the French East India Company ceased to exist in 1769.

Summary.

§ 32. Let us sum up this chapter.

Schemes of Dupleix.

(1.) The genius of DUPLEIX conceives a stupendous plan; extending, no doubt, in his mind, to the occupation of the throne of the Mogul at Delhi by a Frenchman. The very existence of the English in India is incompatible with his vast designs. He prosecutes his schemes with unspeakable skill, energy, and perseverance. They fail utterly, and involve him in their ruin. His vanity almost equals his genius.

Madras twice besieged.

(2.) Madras is twice besieged, in 1746 (§ 4), and in 1757–8 (§ 30); successfully and unsuccessfully.

Pond cherry twice besieged.

(3.) Pondicherry is twice besieged, unsuccessfully in 1748 (§ 11); and successfully in 1760 and 1761 (§ 31).

Paradis.

(4.) PARADIS shows that native troops cannot stand before Europeans (§ 5). This is the French Plassey.

Bussy and Clive.

(5.) BUSSY and CLIVE are heroes of rival fame. The one takes Ginjî (§ 18). The other takes and defends Arcot (§ 22) in 1751.

The rivals.

(6.) Of the rival candidates set up by the two nations, France maintains hers in Haidarâbâd (§ 24); and England hers, and a most unworthy ruler he was, in Arcot (§ 24). The original claimants, however, perish ignominiously in the struggle. *All but Muhammad Alî die a violent death.*

Summary of the Chapter.

(7.) Trichinopoly is thrice besieged, successfully by the English in 1752 (§ 23); and by the French unsuccessfully in 1751 (§ 22), and in 1754–5 (§ 24). — Trichinopoly thrice besieged.

(8.) The English owe much to the steadfastness of Saunders; more to the bravery and skill of Lawrence and Clive; and most of all to the absence of real patriotism in the Frenchmen of the day. The French missed an opportunity such as is rarely presented to the nations of the world. — Saunders, Lawrence, and Clive.

Disunion and jealousies weaken the French. Union and magnanimity give strength throughout to the English.

(9.) It is a war from first to last forced upon the English; who engage in it with reluctance, but prosecute it with the most dogged perseverance. — Characteristics of the English.

(10.) Afghâns, Moguls, and Mahrattas are seen contending in the north-west, unconscious that a power is meanwhile being consolidated in the south-east and north-east, which is destined at last to overwhelm them all. (Ch. v. § 69, 70.) — The North-West. [The FOURTH (second) Battle of Pânipat, 1761.]

CHAPTER IX.

THE FOUNDATION OF BRITISH POWER IN BENGÂL, 1756–1774.

PART I.—1740–1756. To the Black-Hole Tragedy.

Circumstances that led to British supremacy in the North-East, 1756–1765.

§ 1. The foundation, or, at least, the great extension, of British power in Bengâl is connected (1.) with Surâja Daula, the Black Hole, and its attendant cruelties, A.D. 1756; (2.) Clive, and the great battle of Plassey, June 23, 1757, which avenged those cruelties, and virtually made England supreme in Hindûstân; and (3.) the treaty of Allâhâbâd, by which Shâh Âlam II., in August 1765, made over to the English Company the Dîwânî of the Sûbâhs of Bengâl, Bahâr, and Orissa.

So much as is important to the student of the history of the first English settlements in Bengâl is given in chap. vii. § 6.

Bengâl at first an unimportant

§ 2. During the eventful period from 1744 to 1756, while the struggles in the Carnatic (the history of

which we have given in chap. viii.) were going on, the English settlements in Bengâl were of less importance than either those in the Carnatic, or those on the western coast. British Settlement.

They were soon to become the most important of all. The greatest name here also is that of CLIVE. (Ch. viii. § 22.)

§ 3. When *Alî-vardî Khân* (ch. iii. § 15) usurped the government of Bengâl, he protected the English. He had to contend repeatedly with the Mahrattas, whom he succeeded in repulsing; but the fertile plains of the north-east were repeatedly laid waste. Alî-vardî Khân and the English, 1740–1756.

He frequently demanded contributions from the English, as the price of this protection; but as his exactions were not excessive, and his services in repelling the dreaded Mahrattas were real, they did not much complain. Ch. vii. § 6, 8, p. 265.

He had permitted them (in 1744) to enclose Calcutta with a moat, called the Mahratta ditch. (Ch. v. § 57.) The Calcutta ditch.

§ 4. But in 1756, the year when the memorable seven years' war broke out, *Alî-vardî* died; and was succeeded by his grandson, Surâja Daula, a young Caligula, guilty of the most detestable cruelties, and full of implacable hatred to the English. He, on one occasion, demanded from them the surrender of a fugitive, which they declined; and thus afforded him a pretext for attacking them. Death of Alî-vardî Khân. His successor. Umbrage given.

The idea of the wealth of the infidel merchants fired him with an ambition to plunder their factories, one of which was at Cossimbazaar, near to his capital, Mûrshedâbâd. This he took, and then marched to Calcutta. Avarice. (Or *Kásim-bazár*.)

NOTE.—The Nuwâb of Mûrshedâbâd was called the *Nuwâb Nazim* (= *military*) to distinguish him from the Nuwâb Vazir of Oudh. He was also called *Súbáddr*. (Comp. § 28, p. 315.)

His ignorant contempt for the English.

There were not, he told his courtiers, 10,000 people in all Europe. The triumph must be easy and final.

Hastings.

Among the prisoners he took at Cossimbazaar was a young writer, *Warren Hastings*, who had not been in India six years yet, and was then twenty-four years of age. His after career was destined to be as brilliant in its way as Clive's.

Comp. § 35.

The attack.

§ 5. The Council of Calcutta were unprepared for such an attack. Their means of defence were inadequate. Drake, the governor, was not a Dupleix, scarcely even a Morse; and they had among them no Clive.

To be unprepared seems a characteristic of the English.

The Nuwâb before Calcutta.

They first tried to conciliate the Nuwâb. They then asked help from the Dutch at Chinsura, and from the French at Chandernagar; but were refused with taunts. The Nuwâb began to batter their miserable defences on the 18th June (memorable in 1815!); and soon the unhappy garrison was driven within the walls of the fort.

The flight by night.

At nightfall the fatal resolution was taken by the governor of escaping down the river. The women and children were sent on board one of the ships, and Drake put off in the last remaining boat. The soldiers of the garrison, and others who were left behind, tried in vain to find means of escape. The ships dropped down the river to Fulta, where the fugitives took refuge.

(About 20 miles below Calcutta on the left bank of the Hûgli.)

Holwell and the Nuwâb.

Holwell, who was the chief among the deserted party, felt himself compelled to negotiate; and the army of the Nuwâb marched in. The Nuwâb summoned Mr. Holwell before him, and reproached him with defending the place against the rightful ruler of Bengâl; but assured him no harm should be done to the prisoners.

The Black Hole, 1756. *The first great Tragedy.*

That evening, however, the whole of them, 146 in number, were crammed into a wretched dungeon, (ever since called the "Black Hole,") eighteen feet square, with two small apertures: a place which would have been an oppressively confined prison for one person.

This night, the horrors of which no pen can describe, or mind adequately conceive, may be considered an æra in Indian history. Scenes of equal atrocity were enacted in the Sepoy mutinies a century after. These are the things that fix the fate of empires. Horrors.

In the morning twenty-three only were found alive and they were a fearful spectacle.

The Nuwâb is said to have been free from the guilt of ordering this frightful wholesale murder; but he evidently did not regret it. His great anxiety was to find the treasures which he imagined the English had concealed. The Nuwâb's conduct.

PART II.—1756–7. The Black-Hole Tragedy to Plassey.

§ 6. These sad tidings soon reached Madras, where *Clive* and *Watson*, just returned from the destruction of Gheriah (ch. v. § 65), where soon ready to sail to avenge the cruel injury. The avengers.

Clive was the Governor of Fort St. David. (Ch. viii. § 27.) He had learnt to estimate native power rightly.

900 English infantry and 1,500 sepoys, full of spirit, and devotedly attached to their leaders, constituted the army, which was destined to effect a mighty revolution in India.

It was the middle of December before the expedition reached the Hûglî. Madras troops in Bengâl.

No time was then lost. Budge-Budge was taken, Calcutta re-occupied, and the town of Hûglî stormed. At Budge-Budge, Hastings fought as a volunteer. Budge-Budge. (10 miles below Calcutta, on the left bank of the Hûgli.

There he and Clive first met. There was but seven years difference in their ages; but Clive had already gained a mighty

Clive and Hastings.

name. Hastings felt the assurance within him, that he too could immortalise himself. But his fame was not to be gained on the field of battle; and by Clive's advice he remained a civilian. (Comp. § 35, p. 318.)

Hûgli stormed. Coote.

The storming of Hûglî was the work of a young captain, Eyre Coote. He too has a niche among the heroes of British Indian history (p. 295). Here then are four historic names associated at this memorable crisis: CLIVE, WATSON, COOTE, and HASTINGS. To these must be added those of FORDE, then a major in a king's regiment, and of CARNAC.

The four names.

Surâja frightened.

§ 7. Surâja Daula at length began to awake from his dream of fancied security. He knew something of the wars in the Carnatic, of Arcot, and of Gheriah; and now this same Clive was in Calcutta!

Clive had already acquired the name, by which he is still known, of *Sâbat Khân*, or *daring in war*.

Calcutta retaken, Jan. 1757.

An obstinate engagement took place, and the Nuwâb's attacks were repelled at every point. Calcutta was retaken January 2, 1757. Negotiations followed, and a hollow peace was made. The English were allowed to assume their old position, and *vengeance was postponed.*

Hollow peace.

Watson disapproved. The Nuwâb, he said, should be "well thrashed." Clive, who had now become a diplomatist, unwillingly consented, from political considerations, to sign the treaty. (February 9, 1757.)

§ 8. There was now, strange to say, pretended peace between the English and the author of the horrors of the Black Hole.

War with France.

Meanwhile in Europe the seven years' war had begun (ch. viii. § 29); and Watson and others wished to attack the French settlement of Chandernagar. Clive at first wished for neutrality in India. The Nuwâb was, however, asked for permission to attack the French; but

The French settlement taken, May 1757. (Ch. vii. § 7.)

he refused, and even aided them with arms and money. In defiance of his threats, the English forces under Clive attacked the place, and Watson co-operated with the fleet.

Chandernagar was thus taken in May, 1757.

On the tomb of Admiral Watson, who died in Calcutta, are these words, in relation to the events related above:— Watson's tomb. (Aug. 12, 1757.)

> "Gheriah taken, February 13, 1756.
> Calcutta, January 2, 1757.
> Chandernagar taken, March 23, 1757.
>
> Exegisti monumentum ære perennius.'"

§ 9. The peace between the Nuwâb and the English was not real, and could not be lasting. The latter began to feel their power; and the former, full of hatred, fear, and distrust, acted in the most violent and inconsistent manner. He intrigued with Bussy, who was at Cuttack in the Northern Sirkârs (not more than two hundred miles from Calcutta), which had just been ceded to France. [Ch. viii. § 20, ch. iii. § 16 (5).] The perfidy of Surâja Daula, 1756.

He at the same time sent conciliatory messages and even money to the Council at Calcutta: in fact, acted like a madman. He had not a friend, even among his own subjects.

And now a formidable confederacy was formed against him. The plotters were Râydullub, his treasurer; Mîr Jaffîr, the commander of his troops; Jagat Seth, the richest banker in India; with Mr. Watt, the English Resident at Mûrshedâbâd; and the Council at Calcutta. The Plot. The conspirators.

"He or we must fall," said Clive.

A Bengâlî named Omichand was the agent employed to transact the business between the English and the Nuwâb. He, of course, was in the plot. Omichand.

The plan of the conspirators was this. Surâja was The plan.

to be deposed, the British co-operating with Mîr Jaffîr. The most ample and exclusive privileges were to be granted to the English, and the fullest compensation for their losses; while a large sum was to be distributed among the members of the English Secret Committee.

The price.

The hitch.

A difficulty here arose. Omichand, at the last moment, threatened to disclose the whole, unless a sum of 3,000,000 rupees was guaranteed to himself. To satisfy him it was arranged that a clause should be inserted in the agreement, to be signed by Mîr Jaffîr and the members of the English Committee, relating to his claims.

The nefarious expedient.

But Clive and his fellow conspirators condescended to cheat the wily Hindû. Two treaties were prepared, one on white paper, the other on red. In the latter Omichand's claims were guaranteed; while in the other no mention was made of them. The white was the real treaty. The fictitious one was shown to Omichand, and he was satisfied. Admiral Watson had refused to be a party to this deceit, and his signature was forged.

The white and red treaties.

Forgery.

The morality of the plot against Surâja Daula, 1757.

This plan to dethrone the vicious monster, on whom no one could rely, and whose tyranny his subjects could no longer endure, was justifiable. The dissimulation connected with its execution was necessary, it was said; and was defended on the false principle, that the "end justifies the means."

Deceit.

But nothing renders deceit right. Clive and his fellow plotters disgraced themselves by fighting bad men with their own weapons.

§ 10. All was now ready, and Clive wrote a peremptory letter to the Nuwâb, demanding satisfaction for all injuries, and stating that the British army would wait upon him for an answer. The Nuwâb instantly put his army in motion, and the hostile armies met on the field of PLASSEY. The Nuwâb had 50,000 infantry,

18,000 cavalry, and an enormous train of artillery; while Clive had 650 European infantry, 150 gunners, 2,100 sepoys, a few Portuguese, and 10 pieces of artillery. Plassey, 1757. (30 miles S. from Mûrshed-âbâd.)

Meanwhile Mîr Jaffîr was terrified by the approaching crisis, and ceased to communicate with Clive. The wisdom of attacking the Nuwâb, with such fearful odds against them, seemed to Clive's officers to be doubtful; and, in a council of war (the only one Clive ever assembled), thirteen voted against fighting the enemy, and but seven for it. In the minority was Coote. Mîr Jaffîr's conduct. The Council of War. Coote.

Clive dismissed the council, took a solitary walk in a grove hard by, and decided in his own mind that the attack must be made *now or never*, and that it should be made *now*. The next morning he crossed the river, and fought the battle of Plassey on the 23rd June, 1757. The victory was immediate and decisive; and the loss on the side of the English was only 22 killed and 50 wounded. Clive makes up his mind. Plassey, June 23, 1757. (Comp. ch. viii. § 5, and ch. vi. § 8.)

Surâja fled. Mîr Jaffîr, now that victory was assured, joined Clive, who did not condescend to notice his vacillation; but saluted him Nuwâb of Bengâl, Bahâr, and Orissa. Thus Clive did in Bengâl what Dupleix had done in the Carnatic. (Ch. viii. § 16.) Mîr Jaffîr is made Nuwâb. The FIRST BENGÁL REVOLUTION, 1757.

The new Nuwâb was, however, but a tool in the hands of those who had made and could unmake him. A tool.

Omichand was soon undeceived as to his reward, and was stunned by the blow; but seems to have soon recovered, as we find him afterwards recommended by Clive, "as a person capable of rendering great services, and, therefore, not wholly to be discarded." Omichand undeceived.

Clive degraded himself by his duplicity in this transaction, and injured that reputation for strict integrity which, in regard to individuals as well as States, is one of the most essential elements of success. It is not too much to say, that "Clive's treatment of Omichand was truly a national calamity." Tricks.

Death of Surâja Daula, 1757.

§ 11. Surâja was soon seized, having been betrayed by a man whom he had wronged, and brought before Jaffîr, whose son, Mîrân, caused him to be put to death. The poor victim had not completed his twentieth year; and had not been on the throne fifteen months.

"Clive's Fund."

And now came the division of the spoil. Clive contented himself with between two and three hundred thousand pounds, besides an estate received at a later date; of which immense wealth a great part went, by his generous gift, to form what is called "Lord Clive's fund," and the proceeds were applied from the first to the relief of invalids in the service.

Clive was not, on the whole, mercenary; yet these immense sums, received in this irregular way, demoralised those who received them, and lowered Englishmen in the eyes of all men.

Gains to the Company, and to individuals.

Vast treasures, as indemnity for losses sustained, were poured into the Company's coffers; and all shared in the golden harvest.

Introd. § 8, 23.

What are called the twenty-four Pergunnahs (= *sub-districts*) were then given to the Company as a Zamîndâry. The grant is dated December 20, 1757. They comprised an area of about 1,200 square miles.

PART III.—1757–1760. Clive's First Administration.

Clive, 1757–1760.

§ 12. Clive was now virtually ruler of these rich provinces. He was made Governor of the Company's settlements in Bengâl; and remained at the head of affairs till 1760. The transactions of this interval we have now to record.

Summary of affairs in 1757.

We must pause, however, to consider the state of affairs throughout India at this moment, June 1757.

(Ch. iii. § 19, p. 137.) Afghâns.

(1.) Ahmad Shâh Abdâlî made his fourth invasion of Hindûstân this year, and Delhi was sacked by him in September 1757.

(2.) Âlamgîr II. was the nominal Emperor, and Ghâzî-ud-dîn IV. (Table, ch. iii. § 16, p. 132) was his Vazîr. — Emperor.

(3.) The Mahrattas were intriguing with Salâbat Jung and his brother Nizâm Alî in the Dakhan. Bussy was in the Northern Sirkârs; from whence he was peremptorily recalled by Lally in 1758. (Ch. iii. § 16.) — Nizâm.

Bâlâjî Bâjî Râo (1740–1761), was Peshwâ. (Ch. v. § 56–66.) — Mahrattas.

(4.) Seringapatam was attacked by the Mahrattas in 1757; and Nandirâj, the regent, consented to pay them tribute. Haidar was then a rising general. (Ch. xii. § 12, 13.) — Mysôr.

(5.) A desultory warfare was being carried on between the French and English in the Carnatic. Lally sailed from France, May 1757, and arrived at Pondicherry, April 1758. (Ch. viii. § 30.) Madura was taken in 1757 by Colonel Calliaud. — Carnatic.

§ 13. A great danger threatened the new Nuwâb in 1759. Clive too was placed in a dilemma. It was thus. Poor Âlamgîr II. was in the hands of Ghâzî-ud-dîn IV., who at last murdered him. His son, Alî Gôhar (commonly styled the Shâhzâda, or Prince), afterwards the unfortunate Shâh Âlam II. (by which name we shall call him), escaped from Delhi, crossed the *Karmanâsa* (which divides Oudh from Bahâr), at the very time (November 1759) of his father's murder, the news of which he did not receive for a month. — Shâh Âlam II. invades the Nuwâb's dominions, 1759. — Affairs in Delhi. (Its waters are considered so impure, that he who touches it loses all his merit.) (Comp. ch. iii. § 19, 20.)

He then assumed the title of emperor; appointed Shuja-ud-daula, Viceroy of Oudh, his Vazîr; and, with Nazîb Khân as his commander-in-chief, proceeded to take possession of the eastern districts. The Governor of *Patna* was a Hindû, Râm Nârâyan; who, being defeated by the imperial army, threw himself into Patna. — (On the S. bank of the Ganges.)

Clive (thus involved in a necessary rebellion against the great Mogul!) wrote to the trembling Mîr Jaffîr and to Râm Nârâyan to re-assure them; and Colonel Calliaud, marching promptly to the relief of Patna, defeated the imperial and Oudh forces in February and April 1760; and thus saved the Nuwâb for the time. Captain Knox, another distinguished officer, — Clive defends the Nuwâb, and negotiates with Shah Alam II. — The first Battle of Patna, 1760.

(Introd. § 8.) gained a splendid victory over the Râja of Pûrnia, who was in rebellion. Shâh Âlam now wrote to Clive, who sent him a sum of money, on condition that he should evacuate the province of Bahâr, which he did. Thus relieved, Mîr Jaffîr testified his gratitude by bestowing on Clive, as a Jâghîr, the rent due by the Company for the villages round Calcutta.

Clive's Jâghîr.

Death of Mirwan, 1760. § 11. Mîrwan, the son of Mîr Jaffîr, a man of energy, but a monster of cruelty, was struck dead by lightning (in July 1760) while marching with Colonel Calliaud.

§ 14. Two other important achievements conclude this portion of Clive's history.

The Northern Sirkârs. (Ch. iii. § 16.) (1.) The *Northern Sirkârs* were at this period in the hands of the French; but Bussy had been recalled by Lally. (Ch. viii. § 30.) Clive sent an expedition under Colonel Forde in 1759, which drove the French out. He retained for the English only Masulipatam. The battle of Peddapûr, near Râjamandrî, and the dashing capture of Masulipatam, with the French leader in it, are among the most glorious exploits of Anglo-Indian warfare.

April 7, 1759.

The Nuwâb, Clive, and the Dutch. (2.) The fickle Nuwâb now began to intrigue with the Dutch; for his English friends were so powerful that he dreaded their turning against him. The Dutch in Chinsura wrote to their chief at Batavia, and it was arranged that a Dutch armament should attack Calcutta. Clive got intelligence of the intrigue; and, though England was at peace with Holland, attacked the Dutch by sea and land, defeated them utterly, and laid siege to Chinsura. The Dutch, thoroughly humbled, agreed to the terms Clive imposed upon them; and Mîr Jaffîr's intrigues in that quarter were at an end.

Humiliation of the Dutch.

Clive sailed for England, Feb. 25, 1760. Clive now sailed for England the second time, 1760.

There he was received with great honour by the King, Mr. Pitt, and the whole nation. He was raised to an Irish peerage.

PART IV.—1761–1765. Administration of Vansittart and Spencer.

The crisis of 1761. French and Mahrattas humbled.

§ 15. This was a most eventful period in Indian history. The French power in India was at this period utterly broken by Coote (ch. viii. § 31); and soon after the Mahrattas sustained the crushing defeat from which they never fully recovered. (Ch. v. § 69, 70.)

Mr. Vansittart, 1760–1765.

But in those stirring times Mr. Vansittart, an utterly incompetent person, though honest, was acting as Clive's successor in Bengâl. There were quarrels between him and his Council; and, till Clive's return in 1765, nothing can be more painful than the annals of the administration.

Intrigues with Mir Kâsim.

§ 16. After the death of his son, Mîrwan, the affairs of Mîr Jaffîr became worse and worse; and he at length sent his son-in-law, Mîr Kâsim, to Calcutta to arrange his pecuniary matters. Mr. Vansittart and his Council, being struck with the ability of Mîr Kâsim, resolved to dethrone the Nuwâb Nazîm, and to put his son-in-law in his place. The Nuwâb was hopelessly in arrears in his payments to his British allies, was madly extravagant in his expenditure, and evidently looked with no favour upon those by whose hands he had been elevated.

Mîr Jaffîr deposed, and Mir Kâsim put on the throne, 1760. Cession to the Company.

Mîr Jaffîr was induced to resign and to take up his abode in Calcutta; while Mîr Kâsim was installed (27th Sept. 1760). The latter ceded to the English the three provinces of Midnâpûr, Chittagong, and Burdwân, as the price of his elevation.

The Second Bengâl Revolution, 1760.

Thus, for the second time in four years, had the British effected a revolution in Mûrshedâbâd.

The real object of this transaction was to enrich the members of the Bengâl Government. Against every unjust measure of this period Mr. Vansittart and Mr. Hastings, then a young civilian, protested; but in vain.

Mîr Kâsim's energetic conduct.

§ 17. Mîr Kâsim began with great energy to carry out reforms. He reduced expenditure; paid off his English friends; and, disgusted with his position, resolved to shake off their yoke; for which purpose he removed his capital to Monghyr, and there quietly gathered together and disciplined his army. This he did with surprising judgment and skill.

(*Monghŷr,*)

Shâh Âlam II., 1761.

§ 18. At this time Shâh Âlam II., who dared not return to his capital (ch. iii. § 19–22), was hovering about Bahâr with a lawless host. Colonel Carnac attacked and dispersed them; and Law, the Frenchman (who had escaped from Chandernagar, and broken his parole), with his band was taken prisoner; but, to the surprise of the natives, was treated by the English with distinguished courtesy. The Emperor himself was persuaded by Colonel Carnac to join him, and accompany him to Patna; where Mîr Kâsim was induced to pay him homage; and was, in consequence, formally invested by the Emperor with the Sûbâdârship of Bengâl, Bahâr, and Orissa.

The second battle of Patna.

Mir Kâsim ill-treats the Governor of Patna.

§ 19. Mîr Kâsim's conduct at this time was, on the whole, vigorous and just; but he was cruel in his treatment of Râm Nârâyan, the Governor of Patna, whom he despoiled; and Mr. Vansittart's failure to protect this unfortunate governor is one of the worst features in his administration.

Quarrel between the Nuwâb and the Calcutta Council.

A quarrel between the Nuwâb and the Calcutta Council soon arose. The cause was the immunity from the payment of transit duties claimed by the servants of the Company. This freedom had been formerly granted by imperial firmân to the Company itself. It was now grossly abused. All the servants of the Company traded largely on their own private account; and they claimed freedom from the payment of all inland duties, not only for themselves, but for their servants and dependants also. Every native, in fact, by hoisting the English flag could now evade the payment of all duties. The Nuwâb was thus defrauded of his revenues, his servants were insulted, and the trade of the country was thrown into confusion.

Abolition of all transit duties.

After attempts at a compromise, in which Mr. Vansittart was thwarted by the cupidity of the other members of Council, the Nuwâb in desperation resolved to put his subjects and the English upon an equal footing, by abolishing all transit dues throughout his dominions.

Mr. Ellis seized.

§ 20. War ensued. Some English boats were stopped and examined by the Nuwâb's officers at Patna. Mr. Ellis, the Resident, then rashly began hostilities, and seized the city of Patna; but his European soldiers got drunk, and the native commandant recaptured the city. Mr. Ellis and the other Englishmen were taken prisoners; and the Nuwâb at once ordered every Englishman in his dominions to be seized.

War with Mîr Kâsim, 1763.

July 7, 1763. The THIRD BENGÁL REVOLUTION.

Battle of Gheriah, 1763.

§ 21. The Calcutta Council was now resolved to dethrone Mîr Kâsim, and reinstate Mîr Jaffîr, who was 72 years old, and afflicted with leprosy. This was done by proclamation. This was the third Bengâl Revolution. A severe struggle ensued, and especially at Gheriah a battle was fought, which lasted for four

(A plain near Mûrshedâbâd,) hours. In this the late Nuwâb's well-trained and disciplined troops showed most determined bravery, and were with difficulty overcome. This was in August 1763. Major Adams commanded. The Nuwâb's forces amounted to 28,000 men; the English had only 3,000. Monghyr was soon taken, and the Nuwâb had only Pátna.

The massacre of Patna, 1763.

The second great Tragedy.

§ 22. Hitherto our sympathies have been with the Nuwâb, whose conduct was spirited, though his cause was hopeless; but the *Massacre of Patna*, the second great tragedy in British Indian history, places him in the list of men whose names history preserves only to hand down to perpetual infamy.

Cruelties.

He cast Râm Nârâyan into the river with weights round his neck. The great bankers, the Seits, friends of the English, were thrown from one of the bastions into the river.

Noble conduct of the prisoners.

The Nuwâb threatened that he would murder every European the moment the troops advanced on Patna. The commanding officer addressed a letter to the prisoners, asking them to suggest some means of releasing them. Their reply was? "There is no hope of escape. Never mind us. Do not delay the advance of the army one hour." The army moved on to the attack, and the ferocious Nuwâb fulfilled his threat. He ordered his officers to kill all the Europeans in prison; but they nobly answered, "No! turn them out, and we will fight with them, but not massacre them."

The infamous Raymond.

But an executioner was found! Walter Raymond, a German, who had been a sergeant in the French service, and now held a commission in the Nuwab's army under the name of *Sumru* (a name since notorious enough, and now changed to Sombre) volunteered to do the bloody deed. He led a file of soldiers to the house, fired on them unarmed through the venetian windows; and soon forty-

eight Englishmen (Mr. Ellis among them), and 100 soldiers, were lying in their blood on the floor.

Patna was taken (November 6, 1763) after a vigorous resistance; and Mîr Kâsim fled to Shuja Daula, Nuwâb of Oudh, where the fugitive Emperor still lingered. — The English take Patna.

These three now advanced against the English army, and a campaign began, which is one of the most glorious in the British annals. The Nuwâb of Oudh had fought at Pânipat in 1761 (ch. v. § 70), under Ahmad Shâh Abdâlî; the Emperor was the descendant of Teimûr; and Mîr Kâsim had shown himself resolute and daring. Their attack upon Patna was repulsed; and their army finally took up its position between Buxâr and the Sôn. — The three Muhammadan leaders, 1764. The combatants in 1764.

§ 23. And now took place the *first sepoy* mutiny in the Bengâl army. The last and greatest, in 1857, led to the dissolution of that army, and the transfer of British India to the direct government of the Crown. Major Munro acted with firmness. A whole battalion attempted to desert to the enemy; but they were brought back, and twenty men blown away from guns. This firmness and promptitude at once crushed the mutiny. — The First Sepoy Mutiny, 1764. Major Munro's firmness.

§ 24. In October 1764, Munro led his troops against the Nuwâb Vazîr, who was still encamped at *Buxâr* with an army of 50,000 men. He was routed, and 160 pieces of cannon taken. The consequences of this victory were very great:—(1.) the Nuwâb of Oudh, long master of the empire, was humbled; (2.) the English were thus made supreme in Hindûstân; (3.) the Emperor himself came to the British camp, and opened a negotiation with the Council at Calcutta for his restoration to the throne. It was reserved for Clive to reap the full fruits of this victory (§ 28). — The Battle of Buxâr, Oct. 23, 1764. (S.E. of the Ganges, 53 miles E.N.E. from Benâres.) Shâh Âlam II. in the British camp. ("*Vicar of Wakefield*" published.)

§ 25. The Nuwâb of Oudh, Shuja-ud-Daula, retreated towards Delhi; and obtained assistance from the Mah- — Consequences of this great victory.

The Nuwâb of Oudh completely humbled. (On S.W. bank of the Jamna, 40 miles S.W. from Khânpûr.)

rattas under Mulhâr Râo Holkâr, and the infamous Ghâzî-ud-dîn. (Ch. v. § 81; ch. iii. § 18.) But Sir R. Fletcher took Allâhâbâd; Carnac, advancing to Kalpi, dispersed the Nuwâb's army; and the latter was obliged to throw himself upon the mercy of his conquerors. *The great central plain of India was now completely in the power of England.*

Death of Mîr Jaffir, 1765.

§ 26. The reinstated Mîr Jaffîr died in January 1765. The Calcutta Council, the record of whose proceedings for five years fills our mind with shame and disgust, had made enormous demands of money from him; and it appears that he died partly of vexation. His son, a youth of twenty, Najîm-ud-daula, was put on the throne; the members of the Council received large and undeserved presents; and the control of the country was virtually in their hands.

Succession of Najim-ud-daula.

A minister called Muhammad Reza Khân was appointed, whilst the Nuwâb wished to place in that office a most faithless and profligate man, whose name was Nand Kumâr. Râja Shitâb Râi was assistant to the minister. They were both tried in 1772, on charges of corruption, but acquitted.

"Nuncomar."

Lord Clive comes to India a third time, 1765.

§ 27. The Directors of the East India Company, aware of the profligacy of their servants, and alarmed at the state of affairs, now solicited Clive to return to India the third time, with full powers, which he had demanded, 3rd May 1765. Mîr Kâsim had been expelled from Bengâl. The Emperor Shâh Âlam II. was a suppliant in the British camp at Allâhâbâd. The Nuwâb of Oudh, stripped of everything, waited his doom. The army and its leaders had covered themselves with glory; but the Council, with Mr. Spencer (the successor to Vansittart) at their head, had plunged into the lowest gulf of infamy.

State of affairs when he resumed the Government.

PART V.—CLIVE'S SECOND ADMINISTRATION, 1765–1767.

Clive's Reforms.

§ 28. Clive's first measure on his return was to enforce the orders of the Directors forbidding the receipt of presents by their servants. He made all government officers sign covenants binding themselves to obey this rule.

The Covenant.

He then proceeded to Allâhâbâd. The result of his negotiations was:—

Clive arranges affairs.

(1.) The Nuwâb of Oudh was restored as an ally of England;

(2.) Corah and Allâhâbâd were given to the Emperor; and,

Bengâl, Bahâr, and Orissa granted to the Company, Aug. 12, 1765.

(3.) This personage, the descendant of Bâber, granted to the Company the *Diwânî* or virtual sovereignty of Bengâl, Bahâr, and Orissa, for which he was to receive a tribute of twenty-six lakhs a year; while fifty lakhs a year were to be paid to the Nuwâb, in whose name the government was still conducted. This was effected on the 12th August 1765.

The Nuwâb pensioned.

The Nuwâb Nazîm of Bengâl was soon induced to retire on an allowance or pension of forty-two lakhs. This may be called the FOURTH BENGÂL REVOLUTION.

It is worthy of remark that though the Nuwâb Nazim was henceforth of no political importance, the accession of each one was announced to the Emperor of Delhi and confirmed by him until 1825.

The memorable ten months.

§ 29. Thus in ten months (October 1764 to August 1765) had the English overthrown all the powers of Hindûstân; and advanced from the position of a trading Company to the assumption of a virtually independent sovereignty.

An æra.

This period, from the battle of Buxâr to the treaty of Allâhâbâd, is ever memorable in English annals. The year 1765 is an æra in British Indian history.

The only other powers of note in India at this time were the Mahrattas, Haidar, and the Nizâm of Hyderâbâd.

Mâdu Râo and Haidar Alî were then in the zenith of their power. (Ch. v. § 74; ch. xii. § 15.)

Clive's further *Reforms.*

§ 30. Clive had now to carry out further reforms. The army was accustomed to what was called *double batta* when on the field. This was nominally an allowance of subsistence-money; but the amount was unreasonably great: in the case of a captain, it amounted to an increase in his pay of 1,000 rupees a month. Clive was instructed to stop this anomalous system; but he was met by a combination of the European officers, which, in fact, was a mutiny. Two hundred officers agreed to resign in a single day; and, as the Mahrattas were advancing (ch. v. § 81), they thought themselves necessary to the State.

Double Batta.

The European Mutiny.

Clive overcomes them, 1767.

Clive accepted each resignation, and put the ex-officer in immediate arrest, while he sent to Madras for every available man. Even sepoys were employed in coercing their European officers. Clive's firmness subdued the mutiny in a fortnight. *This was a victory as important as Plassey: he thus saved the dominion which he had founded.*

Sir R. Fletcher, commander of the forces, was implicated in the mutiny, and was sentenced to be cashiered. He was restored and appointed commander-in-chief at Madras, where he was a leader in the opposition to Lord Pigot. (Ch. x. § 10.)

Trading put down.

§ 31. Clive's next contest was with the whole services, the members of which universally were engaged in trade, which their position made especially lucrative: to the injury of their character, as it prevented them from doing their duty as public servants. They were now absolutely forbidden to engage in any species of trade, and a compensation was granted; but the question

of official salaries was not actually settled till the time of Lord Cornwallis. (Ch. x. § 20.)

§ 32. Clive left India for the last time in 1767, a poorer man than he was when he returned to it in 1765. Clive leaves India for the last time, 1767.

He was received in England with great honour; but his reforms had raised up for him a host of enemies. Nor had his course, as we have seen, been uniformly honest and incorrupt. All whom he had punished, or whose corrupt schemes he had thwarted, now leagued against him. The Court of Directors did not support him, as it ought to have done; but when it was proposed to censure him in Parliament, a counter-resolution was passed, "that he had rendered meritorious services to his country." His reception in England.

He died in 1774, ten years after Dupleix. His death, Nov. 22, 1774. (Ch. viii. § 24.)

PART VI.—1767–1772. Verelst and Cartier.

§ 33. From 1767 to 1772, Mr. Verelst and Mr. Cartier were successively Governors of Bengâl. The events of this period are chiefly connected with Mahratta and Mysôr history. (Ch. v. § 80–85; ch. xii. § 17, &c.) Mr. Verelst, Mr. Cartier, 1767–1772.

The curse of Bengâl was the *double government*, which has been called Clive's "masked administration." The government was nominally conducted by the Nuwâb's servants; while the European officials vied with them in making haste to become rich by every species of corruption. The governor in vain strove to stem the torrent. It was a sad period: the Muhammadan Government had been destroyed; and no vigorous English rule had been substituted. All the evils peculiar to a great crisis were felt. The double Government. Corruption.

The constitution of the Home Government of India was equally vicious. The Directors were appointed but for one year, and their chief anxiety was to make the most of their patronage. It was a period of unblushing jobbery and corruption.

To add to the general affliction, famine, deadly fever, and small-pox took off 35 per cent. of the inhabitants of Bengâl during the years from 1769–1771. It is estimated that ten millions of human beings perished in that awful visitation, which in addition ruined a great proportion of the landed aristocracy of Lower Bengâl.

PART VII.—1772–1774. HASTINGS GOVERNOR OF BENGÂL.

The double Government destroyed, 1772.

The great name for thirteen years.

§ 34. The Directors resolved in 1772 to abolish the double government, and to assume the direct management, through their own servants, of the revenue of Bengâl. WARREN HASTINGS was appointed Governor of Bengâl to carry out this sweeping measure. He had to arrange the details of the change from a mercantile firm to a sovereign dominion.

Warren Hastings. Summary of his history from 1750 to 1772.

(Aug. 1758.)

§ 35. Warren Hastings was born in 1732, seven years after Clive; landed in India in 1750 as a civilian; was taken prisoner at Cossimbazaar just before the Black Hole tragedy took place (§ 4); joined the fugitives at Fulta; fought as a volunteer at Budge-Budge (§ 6); was sent by Clive, who discerned his abilities, as Resident to Mûrshedâbâd after the battle of Plassey; was appointed member of Council at Calcutta in 1760, where he supported Mr. Vansittart against his corrupt Council; and returned to England in 1764. There he

was summoned to give evidence before the House of Commons; and his evidence displayed such vigour and breadth of view, that his reputation was made at once; and he was appointed second in Council at Madras in 1768.

In 1772 he was sent as Governor (or President) to Calcutta, which now became the seat of Government instead of Mûrshedâbâd. Every arrangement for the constitution of new courts of civil and criminal justice was made by Hastings, and a code was drawn up by him within six months. April 13th.

§ 36. An account of the affairs connected with the treaty of Benâres, made between Hastings and the Vazîr of Oudh, will close this part of the history of British India. The Treaty of Benâres, 1773.

The Mahrattas crossed the Ganges on their return home in 1773 (ch. v. § 81); and the Vazîr of Oudh asserted that the Rohillas had offered him forty lakhs of rupees to defend them from those invaders, and that now they denied the debt. The Rohillas.

Hastings believed and acted upon this statement. He proceeded to Benâres (in August 1773) to meet the Vazîr; and a compact was made, that the latter should pay to the English Government forty lakhs of rupees, and that Hastings should lend an auxiliary force to the Vazîr to expel the Rohillas. Hastings' treaty with the Nuwâb Vazir of Oudh.

This was carried out in April 1774. Hafiz Rahmat, the Rohilla chief, who had 40,000 men under his banner, was defeated by Colonel Champion and slain, with 2,000 of his men. The Vazîr kept aloof with his troops, till the battle was decided, and then rushed eagerly to spoil the defeated foe. "We," exclaimed Champion, "have the honour of the day, and these banditti the profit." The Rohilla War, 1774. The Battle of Râmpûr.

These Afghân strangers, 20,000 in number, now abandoned their usurped possessions, which still bear the Rohilkhand cleared of the Afghâns.

name of Rohilkhand; and the province, with its million of Hindûs, came under the power of the Vazîr of Oudh.

This was the famous Rohilla war. Hastings was violently attacked for sending British troops as mercenaries to aid the Vazîr in expelling the intruders. (Comp. ch. v. § 53, 81.) The Court of Directors, however, wrote in 1775, "We, upon the maturest deliberation, confirm the treaty of Benâres."

The Regulating Act, 1773.

§ 37. The Regulating Act (ch. x. § 2) was passed in 1773; but the judges of the Supreme Court and the new members of Council did not arrive in Calcutta till October 19, 1774.

Warren Hastings Governor-General, 1774.

Then Warren Hastings became the first Governor-General of British India. The remainder of his history belongs therefore to the next chapter, which gives a summary of the careers of the illustrious men who have filled that high office from 1774 to the present time.

SUMMARY.

It is difficult to say whether the struggle in the Carnatic, from the taking of Madras by the French in 1746, to the capture of Pondicherry by the English in 1761 (ch. viii.), or the series of events, from the seizure of Calcutta by Surâja Daula in 1756, to the final departure of Clive from India in 1767, is most important in the history of British India.

This latter period is marked by two terrible tragedies. (§ 5 and § 22.)

Five great battles were fought in it, at Plassey, in 1757 (§ 10); at Patna, in 1760, 1761 (§ 13, 18); at Buxar, in 1764 (§ 24); and at Kalpî, in 1764 (§ 25).

Four Bengâl revolutions are recorded.

By these Surâja Daula lost his dominions and his life, in 1757 (§ 10); Mîr Jaffîr was displaced to make way for his son-in-law,

Summary.

Mîr Kâsim, in 1760 (§ 16); Mîr Jaffîr, in his old age, was again put in authority, in 1763 (§ 21); and finally the British assumed the government, in 1765 (§ 28).

The French and Dutch were humbled (§ 8, 14). A strange series of events brought the young Emperor of Delhi, the XVth Mogul, a suppliant to the British camp (§ 24, 27).

Thirty-six years after Clive's departure, the same Emperor was rescued, as we shall see, from the hands of his Mahratta friends by Lord Lake.

CHAPTER X.

THE GOVERNORS-GENERAL OF BRITISH INDIA, FROM A.D. 1774 TO THE PRESENT TIME.

PART I.—WARREN HASTINGS, 1774–1785.

Previous to 1774.

§1. There was, as we have seen, no Governor-General of British India till 1774. Before that date the Governments of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay, were independent of one another, and were literally *presidencies*. (Ch. vii. § 7.) Some account of their proceedings has been given in the previous chapters; and the history has been brought down to the time when, under Warren Hastings, as head of the Bengâl Presidency, the double system of government was destroyed. The Company was now the sovereign.

From April, 1773, (Ch. ix. § 33.)

§ 2. THE REGULATING ACT (1773).

What led to this celebrated enactment?

Discontent of the East India Company.

The proprietors and Directors of the East India Company were essentially the partners and managers of a mercantile establishment; and nothing could con-

sole them for insufficient dividends. The glorious successes of Clive, their recent acquisition of territory and influence, and the humiliation of their French rivals, could not compensate them for an empty treasury.

(Ch. viii. §. 30, 31.)

In addition to this, the servants of the Company in many cases neglected their duties; made haste to become rich; and, in doing so, were guilty of oppression. Parliament determined to interfere: the Imperial Government, no less than the Directors, desired a reform.

Corruption in India.

Lord North was then Prime Minister; and England was on the verge of the war with the North American Colonies, which ended in the latter achieving their independence (1775–1783).

There were mutual jealousies. The ministers and Parliament feared that the Company would, in consequence of recent events, acquire too much influence. The nation in general, on the other hand, feared that, with the patronage of the East Indian Government in their hands, the ministers would become too strong. The result was a compromise; and the charter of the Company was renewed, some important changes being made in its constitution, with the added provisions that:—

The provisions of the Regulating Act.

(1.) £400,000 a year should be paid by the Company to the nation;

(2.) That, while Madras and Bombay retained their subordinate governors and Councils, the Governor of Calcutta, Hastings, should become Governor-General, on a salary of £25,000 a year; and, assisted by a Council, should be supreme over all the British possessions in India; and,

(3.) That a Supreme Court of Judicature, consisting of a Chief Justice and three other judges, should be established in Calcutta.

Many other minor reforms were made at the same time.

This was the first Act of Parliament recognising the British East India Company as a ruling body.

The grand mistake.

The great mistake in the Regulating Act was, that *the four members of the Governor-General's Council were invested with equal authority in Council with himself.* The Governor-General was, in fact, made the mere President of a Committee.

The new Council.

§ 3. Warren Hastings accordingly became Governor-General, with his Council of four, in October 1774. He held this high office for eleven years. His councillors themselves were badly selected. They were Colonel Monson, General Clavering, Mr. Francis (afterwards Sir Philip Francis, the generally supposed author of the "Letters of Junius"), and Mr. Barwell.

Monson, Clavering, Francis, and Barwell.

Factious opposition to the Governor-General.

The last, who had been long in India, invariably supported Mr. Hastings. The other three as pertinaciously opposed him; and as the votes of the majority decided every matter, the new Governor-General found himself shorn of all his power by his accession of dignity. The majority of the Council were, moreover, ignorant of India, and full of eager animosity to Hastings, while Francis has seldom been surpassed in the faculty of energetic hatred.

Sir P. Francis.

Monson died in September 1776, and Clavering in August 1777. Sir Eyre Coote succeeded the latter.

Hastings struggled against his opponents with wonderful firmness, and with occasional errors in judgment, till the end of 1780, when Francis left the country.

1775.

§ 4. The affairs of Oudh first engaged the attention of the new Council; and the chief aim of the majority was to lower Hastings in the eyes of the people. The Vazîr was compelled to make over the Zamîndâry of Benâres to the English; and Cheyte Singh, its Zamîn-

The District of Benâres added

dâr, was elevated to the rank of Râja, and placed on the footing of a feudatory prince, paying a tribute to the Company of twenty-two and a half lakhs a year. to British territory.

The affairs of the "Begums" of Oudh have since become too notorious to be omitted here. The Nuwâb Vazîr, Shuja-ud-daula, died in 1775. His widow and mother, the "Begums," claimed by virtue of a supposed will of the late Nuwâb the whole of the treasure, two millions of rupees, which was heaped up in the vaults of the Zenâna (§ 11). The acknowledgment of this preposterous claim Mr. Hastings opposed, but in vain. The young Nuwâb was thus left on his accession, with no money, an army to support, and a heavy debt to the English Government. The Oudh Begums. (Ch. ix. § 13, 24-28.) Their absurd claim.

§ 5. Charges were soon poured in against Mr. Hastings by men who regarded his power and influence as extinct. The chief of the accusers was Nand Kumâr, a man infamous for his treachery and perfidy, whom the triumvirate took under their protection, and installed as the Titus Oates of Calcutta. In the desk of this worthy were found, after his death, facsimiles of the seals of all the most eminent persons in Bengâl. His accusations against Hastings, though implicitly accepted by the three councillors, were transparently false, and supported by palpable forgeries. Nand Kumâr's intrigues. "Nuncomar."

While this was going on, Calcutta was astounded by the intelligence that Nand Kumâr had been arrested on a charge of forgery, at the suit of an eminent native merchant.

He was tried on this charge in the new Supreme Court, the jury found him guilty, and he was sentenced to be hanged. Aug. 5, 1776.

This execution of a Brâhman created a profound sensation, and has been made a matter of accusation against Hastings. For this there is not the shadow of reason. Sir Elijah Impey, the Chief Justice, but admi- His execution.

nistered the existing law, which has since been altered. There was undue severity, but no injustice.

Hastings guiltless.

Mr. Francis and his two associates had the power, if they had willed it so, to suspend the execution, and to refer the matter to England; but they declined to interfere. There is not, and there never was, the slightest evidence to connect Mr. Hastings, in any way, with the death of this atrocious miscreant.

Hastings' steady conduct.

§ 6. The biography of Hastings must be read by the student, who will see him often thwarted and misrepresented by the selfishness of the Directors of the East India Company in England; and always by the miserable perverseness of the majority of his colleagues in India; yet holding on his steady course, and twice saving the British Indian Empire by his vigorous conduct.

There are grave errors in his administration; but they are surprisingly few.

The first Mahratta War.

§ 7. The connection of Hastings with Mahratta politics must be studied in chap. v. § 91–103. (From the treaty of Sûrat in 1775, to the treaty of Salbâî in 1782.)

He saves the Carnatic.

§ 8. Hastings' conduct in aiding the Madras Presidency in its struggles with Haidar, from 1780 to his own departure from India, contrasts wonderfully with that of the Governors of Madras during the same period. (Comp. ch. xii. § 26.) He was the only man of his day that saw the important transactions of the time in their true proportions.

§ 9. Madras affairs at this period require some notice.

I. Warren Hastings, 1774–1785.

(1.) In 1773 the Madras Government aided the Nuwâb of Arcot, Muhammad Alî, in an iniquitous war against Tanjore. The Court of Directors condemned this, and removed the President, Mr. Wynch (1775).

Madras in 1773. (p. 269.)

(2.) Lord Pigot succeeded (1775–1776). As a civilian he had been in India forty years, had amassed a colossal fortune, and been created an Irish peer. He restored the Tanjore Râja in spite of the Nuwâb's entreaties and offered bribes. He afterwards had great disputes with his Council, who deposed and imprisoned him. The Court of Directors restored him; but he died in April 1777, while in confinement.

Lord Pigot, Governor of Madras. (Ch. viii. § 30.)

Lord Pigot in Madras.

(3.) Sir T. Rumbold, a Bengâl civilian, succeeded. Basâlat Jung, brother of the Nizâm, now made over the Guntûr Sirkâr to the English, and dismissed his French troops, whom Haidar at once employed. (Ch. iii. § 16.)

Sir T. Rumbold, 1778–1780.

Rumbold's character was long considered to have suffered by certain transactions in his government; but he has been fully vindicated.

(4.) A Mr. Whitehill succeeded, and was removed by Hastings (1780–1781).

Mr. Whitehill.

(5.) Then came Lord Macartney's (on the whole) able and energetic government (1781–1785).

Lord Macartney.

His opposition to Hastings, and the treaty of Mangalore, detract from his reputation. (Ch. xii. § 30–36.)

§ 10. We now return to Bengâl affairs. The judges of the Supreme Court established in Calcutta, in striving to "protect natives from oppression, and to give India the benefits of English law," committed many great mistakes.

1780. Failure of justice in Bengâl.

They interfered between the Zamîndârs and their Râyats. Their attorneys stirred up strife everywhere. Everything was to be brought under the jurisdiction of the "Supreme Court." They applied English ideas to Indian affairs in an undiscriminating spirit.

Hastings interfered, as far as he could, to protect the landholders from this vexatious interference; and Parliament was petitioned for a change of system; but meanwhile a remedy was discovered.

Sir Elijah Impey made supreme Judge.

It was this: there was a Court of Appeal in Calcutta, called the Sudder Diwânî Adâlut. In this the Governor-General himself and his Council had been appointed to preside. This they could not do; and Hastings offered the appointment of Chief Judge of this Court to Sir Elijah Impey, the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court. This reconciled all parties, and enabled Impey to turn his attention to the subject of the administration of justice according to such forms as might suit the greater simplicity of native habits.

Amalgamation of Courts. § 145.

This, though vehemently decried, and at length disallowed by the Court of Directors at the time, was the system restored at the renewal of the charter in 1853, by the amalgamation of the Supreme Courts in each Presidency with the Company's old Courts of Appeal. The Chief Justice now directs the whole judicial system in each government, as Hastings desired.

His financial difficulties. (Ch. v. § 101; xii. § 28–36.)

§ 11. Upon Hastings devolved the imperious necessity of providing the money to carry on the various wars which in 1780 were raging in India. Seldom has a heavier burden rested on the shoulders of one resolute man; but he bore it nobly, and without flinching.

The Mysôreans, the French, the Dutch, and the Mahrattas were in the field against the English at once. The difficulty of the crisis was very great. Hastings, and his veteran general, Sir Eyre Coote, were equal to any emergency.

To provide for the expenses of these wars was the onerous duty of Hastings. He has incurred much odium by the means he took to fulfil this pressing duty.

The disturbance in Benâres.

(1.) He demanded from Cheyte Singh (§ 4), whose Zamîndâry of Benâres, transferred to the English in 1775, was now held by him as a feudatory or dependent

noble, an additional tribute in men and money, in aid of his benefactors and superiors.

The requisition was a just one; though it was somewhat of the "nature of a Tudor benevolence."

The Râja or Zamîndâr ungratefully evaded compliance with the demand; and Hastings proceeded to Benâres for the purpose of enforcing it, as well as of meeting the vakîl of the Râja of Berâr. (Ch. v. § 98.)

Irritated by the ingratitude of the Râja, Hastings somewhat rashly placed him in arrest. The populace rose and massacred the sepoys who carried out the order; and surrounded the place where Hastings was. The Râja himself escaped from the city.

The coolness of Hastings.

Hastings was now in extreme peril; yet he lost no jot of his characteristic self-possession, but negotiated the treaty with the Mahratta chieftain as calmly as if his own life had not been in extreme jeopardy. Eventually he retired to Chunâr; troops were sent in from all quarters; the Râja's army of 20,000 men was defeated; and Bîjghur, his hiding-place, was taken. The troops, however, seized and divided the treasure found in the fortress.

Hastings was cruelly disappointed; for he had failed to supply the wants of the exhausted treasury.

Cheyte Singh escaped to Gwâliôr, where he lived for twenty-nine years. His nephew was placed on the throne.

The present Râja is Isrî Persâd Nârâyan, who is a feudatory prince. See Intro. § 24.

The Begums of Oudh. 1781.

(2.) More doubtful is the treatment of the Begums of Oudh (§ 4). The young Nuwâb Vazîr of Oudh represented his inability to pay his dues to the Company, and asked permission to seize the treasures which the Begums had wrongfully appropriated. Charges were, moreover, made against these ladies of abetting Cheyte Singh, and supplying him with men and money.

Hastings consented. The Begums were compelled to give up seventy-six lakhs of rupees, which were paid over to the Company.

The whole affair was unjustifiable; and it is a sad sight to behold Hastings mixed up in doubtful transactions with men like the Nuwâb Vâzîr; though his own motives undoubtedly were entirely disinterested.

Discontent of the East India Company.

§ 12. The Court of Directors condemned these measures, and Hastings signified his intention of retiring. He proceeded in 1784 to Lucknow, when the Jâghîrs of the Begums were restored; then addressed letters to all the chiefs and princes of India, taking leave of them; and, after putting everything into perfect order, resigned with dignity a trust which he had held, under different titles, for thirteen years. He left India finally in February 1785.

Hastings leaves India.

Hastings in England.

§ 13. In England, Hastings was received with favour by the King, the Ministry, and the Directors. But Pitt had a prejudice against him; though he openly extolled the Indian Proconsul, and even vindicated him in Parliament. Francis, his rancorous foe, was now in Parliament. The renowned orator Burke, and the Whig party in general, combined against him, and it was resolved to impeach him. His trial before the Lords began, with extraordinary formalities and pomp, on the 13th February 1788; and was protracted till the 23rd April 1795, when he was completely and honourably acquitted on every charge. The trial cost him £100,000. Though thus reduced to comparative poverty, he lived peaceably at Daylesford till his death in 1818. Once only did he again appear in public; and then he was called to give (in 1813) evidence before the House of Commons regarding Indian affairs. On that occasion

Impeachment, 1788.

Acquitted, 1795.

Death, 1818.

the whole assembly stood up and uncovered to do him honour.

It was well said that, "if there was a bald place on his head, it ought to be covered with laurels."

§ 14. Hastings, "the Chatham of the East," will always rank among the ablest, most resolute, and most disinterested administrators the world has ever seen. He was pre-eminently a far-seeing politician, labouring calmly and unceasingly to lay the foundations of an empire; where men around him cared only for their own immediate profit, or for thwarting him. Character of Hastings.

Hastings was the enlightened patron of Oriental learning. The *Asiatic Society* was established in Calcutta in 1784 under his auspices. Sir W. Jones, Carey, Wilkins, Forster, and Colebrooke, were the illustrious men who first made Sanskrit literature accessible to English scholars.

§ 15. From 1780 to 1784 the affairs of the East India Company occupied a great deal of the attention of Parliament. Lord North, whose policy lost England her North American Colonies, seemed bent on ruining his country in the East, as he had in the West. Mr. Burke, Mr. Dundas, Mr. Fox, and Mr. Pitt (the younger), were the great statesmen whose influence was most felt in Indian affairs. Mr. Burke's reports on various matters affecting British India aroused all England to feel an interest in those Eastern possessions. Mr. Dundas, with strange ignorance of the merits of the case, denounced the first Mahratta war, and the English treatment of Haidar and Tippû; he also called for the removal of Hastings from Calcutta, Hornby from Bombay, and Rumbold from Madras (§ 9). India in the British Parliament, 1780-1784.

But the student will dwell chiefly upon what are called *Fox's* and *Pitt's India Bills*.

Fox's bill aimed at the transfer of British India to the direct government of the Crown. Seven Commissioners appointed by Parliament were to manage the government, and nine assistant- Fox's India Bill, 1784.

directors the trade. Fox, who was a sincere but mistaken patriot, believed himself to be aiding in the emancipation of millions of men from a galling tyranny. The bill passed the Commons; but was rejected by the Lords, through the personal influence of the King. With this bill fell the *Coalition Ministry* (1784). The excitement in England was intense.

Pitt's India Bill, 1784.

William Pitt, the younger (born 1759, died 1806), England's greatest statesman, succeeded as Prime Minister. He immediately introduced his India Bill, the main object of which was "*to provide a machinery which should control the proceedings of the Company.*" Its chief provisions may be thus summed up:—

The Secret Committee.

1st. The Court of Directors, still chosen by the proprietors of India Stock, were to govern as before in appearance; while three of their number, forming a *Secret Committee*, were to be the real actors.

The Board of Control.

2nd. In reality the power was transferred to a "Board of Control," consisting of six privy councillors, whose decisions were final. The president of this board was the *Indian Minister*.

Peace policy. Non-interference.

3rd. The bill forbade the Governor-General to enter upon any war, except in self-defence; or to make any treaty guaranteeing the dominions of any native prince. It was not till Lord Cornwallis made it a condition of his acceptance of the office, that the Governor-General was freed from subjection to his Council, and allowed to act in extreme cases in defiance of the other members of the Government. He was thenceforth virtually supreme.

The Governor-General made free.

Changes in the constitution of the Council.

4th. The Governor-General's Council was reduced to three, of whom one was to be the commander-in-chief of the Company's forces in India, and the other two Bengâl civilians. Similar councils were established at Madras and Bombay.

Mr. Dundas. 1784–1800.

For sixteen years, Mr. Dundas, who was the *first president of the Board of Control*, filled that position. Parliament, after this, rarely interfered; and for many years showed little interest in Indian affairs.

§ 16. One of the greatest scandals in British history is that connected with the Nuwâb of Arcot's debts. His creditors were men in the Company's service, of every grade. The claims were swollen by every species of dishonesty. It became a gigantic system of fraud. To lend money to the Nuwâb was the shortest way to fortune. For sixty years these claims were under investigation, and cost the country millions of money.

The Nuwâb of Arcot's debts, 1784.

§ 17. Sir John Macpherson, senior member of Council, acted as Governor-General for twenty months, from February 1785 to September 1786.

Sir John Macpherson. (Ch. v. § 105.)

The offer of the appointment was made to Lord Macartney, who judiciously demanded additional powers to add weight to an office of so much responsibility. Mr. Dundas was offended; and Lord Cornwallis, who not long before (October 19, 1781) had surrendered himself and a British army to Washington, was appointed (February 1786) Governor-General of India.

Feb. 1786. Lord Cornwallis.

PART II.—Lord Cornwallis, 1786–1793.

The Second Governor-General.

§ 18. The new Governor-General arrived in Calcutta in September 1786.

His arrival, Sept. 14, 1786.

For the state of affairs among the Mahrattas and Tippû at this period, the student must compare chap. v. § 107, and chap. xii. § 39.

§ 19. Lord Cornwallis enjoyed the entire confidence of Pitt and Dundas. He came out pledged to avoid all occasions of war: his mission was to be that of a peacemaker and reformer.

His firmness repressed the factious, and he bent all his energies to the removal of corruption from all

He reforms the services. (Ch. ix. § 31.)

Adequate salaries given, and private trade forbidden.

branches of the service. Such a reform was never more needed than it was then. At this time small salaries were given to the Company's servants; and, as their opportunities were great, they easily yielded to the temptation of enriching themselves by every species of official depredation.

The coinage at this time was debased, insufficient, and various. Lord Cornwallis and Mr. Shore steadily worked out a reform in the currency. This materially aided the effect of the other measures of reform then adopted.

Trading and corruption put down.

§ 20. His first real measure of effectual reform was that of assigning to every officer of Government such a salary as should leave him no shadow of excuse for trading, or attempting to acquire money by corrupt practices. This measure, added to an incomparable firmness and consistency in resisting all jobbery and favouritism, and in punishing all frauds, soon cleansed the Augean stable. The purity of the Indian services soon became (and has continued to be) as conspicuous, as their corruption had been notorious. The example of this great man was as effectual as his legislation in this respect.

The Guntûr Sirkâr.

§ 21. The next step was to claim the Guntûr Sirkâr, which had been assigned by the Nizâm to the British Government on the death of Basâlat Jung. (Ch. iii. § 16.)

In 1788, Lord Cornwallis made a peremptory demand for its cession. The Nizâm complied at once, but begged for a British contingent to aid him against "Tippû," who had usurped the Bâlaghât. (Ch. xii. § 38; v. § 106.)

July, 1789.

Lord Cornwallis promised this aid; stipulating, however, that the British troops should not be employed against any power in alliance with England. Of these

powers a list was given, and *Tippû's was not there.* This letter was the occasion, though not the real cause, of Tippû's breach of the treaty of Mangalôr.

§ 22. Lord Cornwallis was in the Madras Presidency from 1790 to 1792 (ch. xii. § 41), engaged in the conduct of the *Third Mysôr War*, the issue of which was entirely favourable to the English. This was the first time that the English armies had been led by a Governor-General. The first war with Tippû.

He was censured in England for the acquisition of territory which was the result of this war; but the nation in general approved of his conduct, and he was made a Marquess. He generously gave up to the army his share of prize-money, amounting to £50,000; as did General Meadows. His generosity.

§ 23. Some attention must be paid to Lord Cornwallis' PERMANENT SETTLEMENT. This is the chief ground of his fame. The Permanent Settlement.

The land had been the principal source of revenue under every dynasty. The collectors of this revenue under the Mogul Emperors had, by degrees, converted themselves into Zamîndârs, possessing military authority. These persons the British Government did not at first recognise; but in 1786, the Directors wrote out that all engagements should, as a matter of policy, be made with the Zamîndârs. This was to be done for ten years, and the settlement was to be made permanent, if found to answer. Lord Cornwallis, by his regulations in 1793, conferred upon these persons the absolute proprietorship of the soil. They were constituted landlords, and the cultivators became their tenants. These last were left too much at the mercy of the Zamîndâr, and this was the weak point in the whole settlement. The Zamindâr System. The Regulations of 1793. The weak point in the Settlement.

Mr. Shore opposed its being made permanent. Lord Cornwallis, Mr. Pitt, Mr. Dundas, and Mr. Charles Grant, decided that it should. The settlement has occasioned much discussion; but on the whole its principle seems to be sound; though it requires modification to adapt it to the changed circumstances of Bengâl. The system adopted in Bombay and Madras is the Râyatwâr system. (See General Index, *Râyatwâr.*)

Under this settlement the North-Eastern provinces have greatly flourished. The subject of land-tenures is, however, still surrounded with difficulties.

The Civil and Criminal Courts.

§ 24. The reform of the civil and criminal courts next occupied his attention. Sir Elijah Impey's rules were developed into a volume of regulations by Sir George Barlow; and the system of Civil Courts and procedure, which, with some modifications, still exists, was established.

Unfair exclusion of natives from office.

The greatest evil of this system was the power it gave to the police of oppressing the people. Natives, moreover, were excluded from all share in the administration of justice, and from all but the most subordinate offices in the public employ. This was remedied in after times (§ 94). It seems a serious and inexcusable mistake; but, regarding the great work of reform and reorganization before him, Lord Cornwallis determined that every responsible office should then be filled by a European.

War with France. (Ch. viii. § 31.)

§ 25. The French Republican Convention declared war against England in February 1793; and Pondicherry was at once taken by the British troops. It was held till 1802.

Lord Cornwallis one of the Founders of the British Indian Empire.

§ 26. Lord Cornwallis left India in October 1793. He was firm, dignified, vigorous. His administration consolidated greatly the Anglo-Indian empire: Clive and Hastings were its founders; Cornwallis gave it system and stability.

Had Hastings possessed the authority which Cornwallis now compelled the Company to concede to him, he would have left his successor little to do in the way of reform.

§ 27. For the important events which made Mahratta power supreme in Delhi from 1784 to 1803, the reader must consult chap. v. 107, and chap. iii. § 24.

§ 28. To this period belong the *Declaratory Act*, and the *Charter of* 1793. In 1788 Mr. Pitt introduced a bill affirming that the bill of 1784 was intended to transfer to the Crown all real power in regard to Indian affairs. This was the *Declaratory Act*. The Declaratory Act.

The Company's charter was renewed in 1793 for twenty years, chiefly through the influence of Mr. Dundas. The Charter of 1793.

By it—(1.) the monopoly of the trade to India, and all other exclusive privileges, were continued. Free trade was supposed to be ruin. Monopoly continued.

(2.) Missionaries and teachers were excluded by its provisions. Knowledge, and especially religious knowledge, it was argued, would lead to rebellion. Knowledge excluded.

On these matters light has slowly dawned on the rulers of British India (§ 72, 103, 145).

PART III.—Mr. Shore (Sir John Shore, Lord Teignmouth), 1793–1798.

The Third Governor-General.

§ 29. Mr. Shore was a civilian, mainly instrumental in effecting the permanent settlement, though he wished that it should be decennial. He had attracted the His former services.

notice of Pitt and Dundas by his able conduct of that affair. He first arrived in India in 1769.

§ 30. The affairs of Tippû, of the Pûna Government, and of the Nizâm were very much complicated. The Governor-General tried to mediate, but with little effect. (Ch. v. § 114; xii. § 47.)

1794. 1795. Mr. Shore's subsequent neutrality and want of energy emboldened the Mahrattas to attack the Nizâm, left thus to his fate. (Ch. v. § 114.) The battle of Kûrdlâ humbled the Nizâm, and placed Nânâ Farnavîs on the pinnacle of power.

Mutiny of Bengâl officers, 1795-1796.

§ 31. The mutiny of the European officers of the Bengâl army, who clamoured for higher pay and every species of privilege, was only checked by a weak and injudicious yielding to the malcontents of nearly all they asked. The Home Government immediately superseded Sir John Shore, and Lord Cornwallis agreed to resume his office for a time; but the evident inclination of the Court of Directors weakly to yield to the discontented officers, led to his subsequent refusal at that time to return to India.

Oudh.

Vazir Alî dethroned. (Ch. iii. § 17.)

§ 32. In 1797 *Asof-ud-daula*, the Nuwâb Vazîr of Oudh, died. In vain had he been exhorted to pay some attention to the welfare of his kingdom. He lived and died a child in intellect, and a debased sensualist. A reputed son of the late Nuwâb, Vazîr Alî, succeeded him; but his proved illegitimacy and worthless character led Sir John Shore to displace him, and to elevate Sâdat Alî, brother of the late Nuwâb. The history of Oudh (ch. iii. § 17) will show how entirely its affairs were in the hands of the British Government. The tribute was seventy-six lakhs a year, and the subsidiary force 10,000 men.

Sâdat Alî placed on the throne.

Mr. Cherry was then Resident at Benâres, and he negotiated the treaty with Sâdat Alî, who then lived at Benâres. Soon after, the new Nuwâb marched to Lucknow, where Sir John Shore was encamped. The Governor-General was in extreme peril from the displaced Vazîr Alî's hordes of lawless soldiers; but, with the utmost calmness and composure, he maintained his position, and the new Nuwâb was placed on the Musnud, Vazîr Alî being sent to Benâres. Mr. Cherry. Jan. 1798.

In 1799 Vazîr Alî assassinated Mr. Cherry in Benâres, and raised a temporary rebellion; but was defeated and taken prisoner. Vazîr Alî of Oudh.

§ 33. Sir John Shore, who was created Lord Teignmouth, sailed for England in March 1798.

PART IV.—The Marquess Wellesley, 1798–1805.

The Fourth Governor-General.

"The Akbar of the Company's Dynasty."

§ 34. (1.) The Marquess Wellesley (Lord Mornington), the FOURTH Governor-General, arrived in India in May 1798, and quitted it in August 1805: a most eventful period. Lord Mornington.

(2.) The most *brilliant* of the Governors of British India, he is to be compared with *Clive*, *Hastings*, and *Dalhousie*. Summary. Brilliant genius.

(3.) He departed altogether, necessarily, wisely, and boldly, from the *non-interference policy*. His policy.

(4.) The FOURTH Mysôr war was conducted to a happy issue. Tippû's overthrow took place in 1799. Mysôr became again a Hindû kingdom. (Ch. xii.) Tippû, 1799.

(5.) The affairs of Oudh were regulated in 1801. Oudh, 1801.

Treaty of Bassein, 1802. (Ch. v. § 123.)

Second Mahratta War, 1803. (Ch. v. § 123–136.)

Subsidiary Alliances. (Ch. v. § 124, 125.)

French influence.

Shâh Âlam II.

Third Mahratta War.

(Ch. v. § 137.)

(6.) The Mahratta Confederacy was broken up by the TREATY OF BASSEIN, 1802.

(7.) The second great Mahratta War, which lasted for a few months only, was brought by Lord LAKE and General WELLESLEY (the Duke of Wellington) to a triumphant conclusion.

The Râja of Berâr (Raghujî Bhonslê) and Sindia (Daulat Râo) submitted to form subsidiary alliances with the British Government, the former in November 1803, the latter in February 1804.

(8.) The state of Europe, torn by the conflicts of the French Revolution; and also the interference of France in Indian affairs, must be considered in studying this period.

(9.) Shâh Âlam II. was released from Mahratta thraldom by Lord Lake, September 1803.

(10.) The war was renewed with Holkâr, 1805. Lord Lake was still in command.

(11.) Bhartpûr was unsuccessfully besieged, 1805; but its Râja submitted.

Character of the Marquess Wellesley.

§ 35. The new Governor-General was a man of genius, refined by education; possessed of a most comprehensive mind; the friend of Pitt and Dundas; and for four years had been a member of the Board of Control. In his great measures the Directors of the Company opposed him; while Mr. Pitt enthusiastically supported him.

The idea of a Balance of Power destroyed.

§ 36. It is his merit to have destroyed the foolish idea of maintaining a *balance of power* among the native princes: of balancing them one against the other, and of secretly encouraging their enmities, in order to obtain power over all, without seeming to interfere with any.

(§ 40.)

His was a bold, wise, and humane *policy of intervention*. It has been called the *subsidiary system*. He was not its author; but he developed it, and strove to introduce it into every native state. As the subsidiary system was the result of the greater resources, intelligence, and military skill of the English, so it led, of necessity, to the rapid extension of the supremacy of

England; but, it must be conceded, that that system was rendered necessary by the selfish policy, the indolent incapacity, and the internecine wars of the various Dakhani chiefs. The subsidiary system.

Without this system England must, at the close of the eighteenth century, have abandoned India, leaving it a prey to miserable anarchy; and relinquishing the fruits of all her labours in the East.

And it will be seen that, when once introduced, the subsidiary system could not but become universal.

§ 37. To estimate accurately the work the Marquess Wellesley had to do, we must compare chap. xii. § 47–51, and ch. v. § 117–123.

Tippû, the Nizâm, and Sindia were alike under French influence, relied upon French officers, and were disposed to aid the French to overthrow the English dominion in the East. French emissaries were at Seringapatam, Raymond with 14,000 men at Haidarâbâd, and De Boigne with 40,000 men in Sindia's camp. If the English had shrunk from their work, the French would have been the gainers. Affairs in the Dakhan.

§ 38. Zemân Shâh, the grandson of Ahmad Shâh Abdâlî, the victor of Pânipat, also threatened to invade India. There was thus apparent danger on every hand. This man, in his old age, quite blind, accompanied Pollock's army when it evacuated Kâbul, and ended his life in the Panjâb. Zemân Shâh, 1798. (§ 110.)

§ 39. Oudh was at this period mismanaged and oppressed by its ruler and his Vazîr. The troops were ill-disciplined and irregularly paid. Sâdat Alî, according to the terms of the treaty which placed him on the throne, was bound to maintain an efficient army, on which condition only the British Government had engaged to defend his throne and kingdom. This Lord Wellesley now compelled him to do. Mr. H. Oudh affairs in 1801. (§ 32.)

(Intro. § 9, 23.) Wellesley was sent to negotiate. Districts were ceded for the support of the army, and Oudh was thus placed for the time in security. These important districts comprised Allâhâbâd, Futtehpûr, Khânpûr, Azimghar, Gorruckpûr, Bareilly, Morâdâbâd, Bîjnûr, Budaôn, and Shâhjehânpûr; forming the chief part of what are now called the North-western Provinces.

Ceded districts of Oudh.

1798. § 40. The first *subsidiary alliance*, formed at this time, was with the Nizâm, whom Kûrdlâ (ch. v. § 114) had well-nigh ruined.

The Nizâm's affairs regulated. The French force was disbanded, and a corps of British troops, paid by the Nizâm, and officered by Europeans, was substituted for it. The British henceforth garrisoned his territories, while he paid the cost.

If the Nizâm became thenceforth utterly powerless, he was at least rendered *secure*. This is the point to be considered in the whole question of the *subsidiary treaties*. The native states, it is true, lost their *independence*; but they gained a *security*, which they had no other means of obtaining. But for this they must, in fact, have ceased to exist.

Ballâri. Kadapa. The districts of Bellary and Cuddapa were made over by the Nizâm in payment for the subsidiary force. They are called the *ceded districts* of Haidarâbâd. [Intrd. § 23 (16).]

1798. § 41. The Peshwâ, by the advice of the Nânâ Farnavîs, at this time, declined the closer alliance; but remained outwardly friendly to the British Government. The other Mahratta powers followed this example. (Ch. v. § 119.)

1799. § 42. The capture of Seringapatam firmly established the British power from Cape Comorin to the Kishtna. (Ch. xii. § 51.) The collectorates of Kanara and Coimbatôr, with the Wynâd and the Nîlagiri hills, were then added to the Company's territories. [Intro. § 23 (16).]

Additions to the British territories.

At this period the Governor-General was appointed by the King as Captain-General in India.

The great men in the Indian services.

§ 43. The number of great men then in the English service, civil and military, is very remarkable. A great Governor-General seems to have the power of summoning around him, and even of creating, men of genius.

The worthy disciples and coadjutors of the "great Marquis."

Colonel Sir Barry Close, Sir John Malcolm, the Hon. Mountstuart Elphinstone, Sir Thomas Munro, Henry Wellesley (Lord Cowley), Arthur Wellesley (the Duke of Wellington), Mr. Colebrooke, Sir Charles Metcalfe, General Lord Lake, Colonel Collins, Colonel Ochterlony, Major Walker, and Mr. Webbe, were among the men who gave effect to the great "Proconsul's" wishes; and many of them were men formed and fitted for great achievements by his influence. Meanwhile the amount of labour, close and constant, performed by the Governor-General himself almost surpasses belief. A like remark may be made with regard to almost every one who has ever filled that high office.

Tanjôr affairs. (Table, ch. v. § 27.)

§ 44. The extinction of the Tanjôr Râj, as an independent government, took place in 1800.

Serfojî, adopted by Tuljajî, was, after some disputes, put on the throne by Lord Wellesley; but so many were the liabilities of the country, that the government was taken over by the English, with the consent of all parties, allowing the Râja an income of a lakh of pagodas, and one-fifth of the revenues. (The Râj itself became extinct in 1855 on the death of Sivajî, having subsisted from 1637. Ch. v. § 7, 17, 24.)

The Carnatic.

In 1801 the Madras Presidency attained very nearly its present dimensions through the formal resignation of the Government of the Carnatic by the Nuwâb, Azîm-ud-Daula, who received a liberal pension, amounting to one-fifth of the State revenues. The Nuwâbs, Muhammad Alî and Amaut-ul-Omrah, had both been engaged in treasonable communications with Tippû. The collectorates of Nellôr, North and South Arcot, Trichinopoly, and Tinnevelly, were thus formally added to the Company's territories. (See Table, p. 251. Intro. § 16.)

The Marquess leaves India.

§ 45. In August 1805, the Marquess Wellesley left Calcutta, attended by the applause of all right-judging persons. The Court of Directors, though opposed to his policy, recorded their opinion of his "ardent zeal to promote the well-being of India, and to uphold the interest and honour of the British Empire." A sum of £20,000 was granted to him, and his statue was placed in the India House.

Honours and rewards.

The College of Fort William

Metcalfe.

§ 46. An event which marked his career was the establishment on a grand scale (which was reduced by the Court of Directors) of the College of Fort William, for the education of civilians, and for the promotion of oriental learning. *Charles Theophilus Metcalfe* was the first student, in 1800. (Comp. § 96.)

Private trade.

Wellesley's liberality. (§ 98.)

§ 47. One of the subjects of continual debate during this administration was that of *private trade*. The Company in 1793 allowed 3,000 tons annually for this purpose; but the trade of private individuals soon passed this limit. Lord Wellesley wished to throw the trade open. The Court still dreaded *interlopers*, and continued to put off the inevitable day when India should be free to all. His liberality cost him the favour of the Company. The benefits bestowed on India by the unrestricted introduction of British enterprise and capital are now universally acknowledged. From this time there was little cordiality between the two parties. Financial embarrassment (for the cost of the Mahratta wars was enormous) was severely felt at this period.

Vexatious interference of the Court of Directors.

§ 48. In 1802 the Court of Directors reduced various items of expenditure sanctioned by the Governor-General; removed Mr. Webbe, the very able and upright Secretary of the Madras Government; and otherwise interfered in such a vexatious way with his prerogatives, that the Governor-General intimated his

intention of returning to England. Lord Clive, the Governor of Madras (1799–1803), son of the great Clive, resigned in consequence, and was succeeded by Lord W. Bentinck (1803–1807). The Marquess was, however, induced to remain another year. That eventful year fixed the destinies of British India.

The second Lord Clive.

It was the year of the Second Mahratta War. (Ch. v. § 124–136.)

PART V.—Lord Cornwallis, Second Time. Sir George Barlow, 1805–1807.

1805.

§ 49. Lord Cornwallis was appointed to succeed the great Marquess, and arrived a second time in Calcutta on the 1st of August 1805.

Lord Cornwallis' second arrival.

§ 50. His main object was to overturn Lord Wellesley's statesman-like policy, and to terminate the contest with Sindia and Holkâr at any cost. (See ch. v. § 124.) This new policy was essentially, though its advocates thought otherwise, *selfish* and *inhuman*.

§ 51. He condemned the treaty of Bassein. (Ch. v. § 123.) He was willing, despite the manly and energetic remonstrances of Lord Lake, to lay British honour at the feet of the successful freebooter, Daulat Râo Sindia and of Holkâr.

His policy.

§ 52. Death arrested his progress to the scene of war, at Ghâzîpûr, near Benâres. The mild and virtuous old man died in the discharge of what he erroneously believed to be his duty; and his memory will always be held in honour.

His death, Oct. 5, 1805. (On the N. bank of the Ganges, 41 miles N.E. from Benâres.)

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Barlow's views. (He was not permanently Governor-General.)

§ 53. Sir George Barlow, as senior member of Council, now succeeded. He entirely agreed with the views of his predecessor. "Lord Wellesley's policy of intervention," he said, "must in its nature be progressive, and must ultimately tend to a system of universal dominion." It has indeed progressed, and England is now the paramount power in India. It must be stated, however, that Barlow steadily refused to depart from the policy of Wellesley in regard to Pûna. He maintained the position which the treaty of Bassein gave the English Government. At the same time he had to contend with great financial difficulties.

Paramount powers.

§ 54. But those who are inclined to adopt the reasoning of the Marquess Cornwallis must observe that India has always been under some paramount power. There was the Buddhist, Asôka's, dominion. Then came the Afghân dynasties. Then the Mughal emperors. And finally arose the British dominion, more powerful and more beneficent than any that had preceded it.

Lord Wellesley's policy was the only one that afforded a hope for the down-trodden inhabitants of the land. This is now fully recognised. Sir G. Barlow himself was compelled to "interfere" in the Nizâm's affairs to preserve peace.

The Vellore Mutiny.

§ 55. During Sir G. Barlow's tenure of office occurred the *Vellore Mutiny*. There was dissatisfaction among the sepoys in the Madras Presidency on account of a change in their head-dress. Lord W. Bentinck was then Governor of Madras. The discontent was fomented by the sons of Tippû and their retainers, who lived in Vellore.

(Ch. xii. § 56.)

Tippû's family.

The family of Tippû had been permitted to live there, under scarcely any restraint, with princely incomes, surrounded by a large Muhammadan population; and

there can be no doubt that their agents had corrupted the native soldiery.

§ 56. On the 10th of July 1806, at 2 A.M., the native troops in Vellore rose against the European part of the garrison, consisting of two companies of the 69th Regiment, and massacred 113 persons. The massacre.

Colonel *Gillespie*, who was at Arcot, sixteen miles distant, hearing of the attack, immediately marched to the spot, retook the fort, and dispersed the insurgents. (§ 74.)

Tranquillity was ultimately restored; but the Vellore mutiny showed, what the greater mutiny of 1857 confirmed, that nothing is too insignificant to excite the most wide-spread panic in India. Indian panics. (§ 159, 160.)

§ 57. On this occasion, it was said that the new turban was a kind of hat, and that its introduction was a part of a systematic design to make the sepoys into Christians. The turnscrew attached to the uniform was said to be a cross. Vaccination, which had been recently introduced, was a part of the plan. It was asserted that all natives who did not put up the cross over their doors were to be massacred. Muhammadan Fakîrs vied with Hindû Sanyâsîs in fanning the flames. The causes of the outbreak. A Native panic.

It is, however, a truth admitting of no dispute, that the world has never seen a government more liberal, and entirely tolerant, than that which Great Britain exercises over her Indian Empire. British toleration and fairness.

This has been carried to an excess. * The Serampore missionaries, Carey, Ward, and Marshman, were for a time prevented from teaching Christianity in the Company's territories. Meanwhile it will now be readily admitted that Christian missionaries in India have been the unwearied, earnest friends of the people. They have in every part of the land striven to benefit the native races, and have been the best pioneers of civilisation and education.

§ 58. Tippû's family was now removed to Bengâl, where the colony, liberally supported by the Govern- Tippû's family removed.

ment, still exists. Lord W. C. Bentinck and Sir John Cradock, the commander-in-chief at Madras, were removed, though no real blame attached to the former; and the error of the latter was venial.

Sir G. Barlow removed to Madras.

§ 59. Sir G. Barlow, who was a good man of business, not of a high order of intellect, of unpopular manners, and destitute of tact, was now superseded by the Ministry (Lord Grenville's); and Lord MINTO was appointed. Lord Lauderdale had been nominated, but his appointment was cancelled. Lord Minto had been President of the Board of Control.

Barlow in Madras.

Sir G. Barlow was consoled with the government of Madras, which he held from 1807–1813; when he was finally recalled.

PART VI.—LORD (EARL OF) MINTO, 1807–1813.

India tranquil!

§ 60. LORD MINTO (who arrived in Calcutta early in 1807, and left it in October 1813) found India in a state of stupor, which the advocates of the "peace-at-any-price" policy called tranquillity. It will be seen, that this great man was by no means disposed to abide by the "non-interference policy." But compare ch. v. § 140, &c.

Travancore affairs.

§ 61. In 1808 disturbances broke out in Travancore, which did not cease till February 1809.

Summary of the former history of Travancore.

In 1790 Tippû had attacked Travancore. This led to the Third Mysôr War (§ 22). (Ch. xii. § 40.)

The petty principalities of Travancore were reduced by Wâji Bâlâ Perumâl (1758–1799), who gradually became the Râja of the whole district.

He was the steadfast ally of Britain; and in 1784 (ch. xii.

§ 36) he was specially mentioned in the treaty of Mangalôr. In 1788 British troops were stationed on his frontier for his protection.

In 1795 a subsidiary treaty had been concluded with this state, which was renewed in 1805.

§ 62. The management of Travancore had for some time been shamefully corrupt. The Resident had interfered, and the Dîwân was irritated. He intrigued with the Dîwân of the neighbouring state of Cochin, and with the French. Sir G. Barlow was then Governor of Madras, and took prompt measures to suppress the rebellion.

The outbreak. 1808.

A vessel with thirty-one privates and a surgeon of the 12th Regiment put into *Allepie*. The men were decoyed on shore, seized, tied in couples back to back, and with stones tied round their necks, thrown into the back-water.

Massacre. (On the Coast, midway between Cochin and Quilon.)

The Resident's house at *Quilon* was attacked, and he escaped with difficulty.

(Coulan, 102 miles N.N.W. from Cape Comorin.)

§ 63. A detachment under Colonel H. Leger marched from Palamcottah to the Arambûli lines, constructed in the pass about twelve miles from Cape Comorin, where there is a broad level opening between the mountains, leading up from South Tinnevelly into the Travancore country.

The storming of the Arambûli Lines, Feb. 9, 1809.

NOTE.—There are three passes. One into Coimbatôr, called the *Chowghât* (near Trichûr); the second is the *Ariyankôl*, into Tinnevelly; the third is the *Arambûli*.

These lines were soon occupied by the British troops under Major Welsh.

Kotâr, Nâgarcôil, *Udagiri*, *Pâpanâveram*, Killianôr, were taken, and all the passes seized. The Dîwân finally committed suicide, and his brother was hanged in front of the 12th Regiment, in the murder of whose men he had participated.

Suicide of the Diwân. (The former a fortress; the latter the residence of the Râja.)

His brother hanged.

The Râja denied all cognisance of the acts of his Dîwân.

§ 64. The Travancore state remained under British management till 1813, when it was restored to the Râja (§ 61).

Cochin. (Ch. xii.)

Cochin was conquered by Haidar Ali in 1776; was transferred by the treaty of 1792 to England, and is tributary. In 1809 an insurrection took place, which was put down. A treaty was then made by which the Cochin territories were placed under more immediate British control.

Madras mutiny, 1809.

§ 65. There was great discontent in the Madras European army at this time, in consequence of a reduction in the emoluments of the officers. The commander-in-chief fomented this bad spirit, and was removed. He was lost on his way home, or he would doubtless have suffered the severest punishment. Sir G. Barlow seems to have been wanting in both temper and discretion.

Mauritius. Nov. 1810.

§ 66. It was now found necessary to send an expedition to take the islands of Mauritius, Bourbon, and Rodriguez, from which French cruisers constantly issued and made prizes of our ships. Expeditions in 1809 and 1810 accomplished this result in the most brilliant manner.

Mauritius still remains under the British dominion. Bourbon was restored to France in 1814.

Sir C. Metcalfe, 1808.

§ 67. Lord Minto sent Mr. Metcalfe (afterwards Sir Charles and Lord Metcalfe), on an embassy to the sovereign of Lâhôr, the extraordinary *Ranjit Sing*. (Ch. xi. § 24–26).

Treaty with Ranjit Sing, 1809.

First treaty of Lâhôr.

A treaty was then concluded, by which he bound himself not to encroach upon the rights of the Cis-Satlaj states, and to maintain amicable relations with the British Government.

Metcalfe and Ranjit Sing, 1808, 9.

Such an effect is said to have been produced upon that astute chief by the demeanour of the young envoy (then in his twenty-sixth year), that he never could be persuaded in his after-life to break the treaty he then signed.

This treaty with Ranjît Sing marks the beginning of

a new period in British Indian history: the Panjâb now becomes of importance.

§ 68. As the French had at this time subdued the Netherlands, it became necessary for the Governor-General to take possession of the Dutch settlements in the Eastern seas. *Amboyna*, *Banda*, and finally *Jâva*, were taken by a force under Sir S. Auchmuty (April 1812).

Sir S. Raffles was appointed Governor. At the peace of 1814 these conquests were restored to the Dutch.

Dutch possessions taken:—
1. One of the Moluccas.
2. A Group, 120 miles S.E. from Amboyna.
3. Chief of the Sunda Islands.
Restored.

§ 69. Lord Minto not only made British influence supreme in the Western and Eastern Seas; but he opened negotiations with Sind, Kâbul, and Persia, with the object of preventing French intrigues, and securing peace in India. The Amîrs of Sind agreed to exclude the French.

Treaty with Sind, 1809.

Mountstuart Elphinstone was sent to Kâbul, where he concluded a treaty with the king, Shâh Shuja. (Comp. § 110 *b*.)

Elphinstone in Kâbul, 1809.

Sir John Malcolm was sent to Persia; and, another envoy having been sent from England at the same time, a treaty was signed by the Shâh, in which he bound himself not to allow the passage through Persia of troops hostile to Britain. It is the glory of Lord Minto to have selected such men as Metcalfe, Elphinstone, and Malcolm.

Malcolm in Persia, 1808, 1809.

The Envoys.

§ 70. The pacification of Bandêlkhand was also the work of this administration. Kalinjîr (ch. ii. § 10) and Ajyghur were taken, and the lawless chiefs reduced to order. Lord Minto was now raised to an earldom; but died shortly after his return to England in 1813. He was, though the influence of the Prince Regent, recalled before his time, to make way for Lord Moira.

Bandêlkhand, 1807-1812.

Lord Minto made an Earl. His death.

He is justly esteemed one of the greatest of the Anglo-Indian statesmen. He had been one of the

managers of the prosecution of Warren Hastings. His Indian experience greatly altered his opinions on all Indian matters.

The Anglo-Indian empire now numbered 75,000,000 of subjects, of whom 15,000,000 were Musalmâns, 60,000,000 Hindûs, and 30,000 Europeans.

Renewal of the Charter, 1813.

§ 72. In 1793 the East India Company's charter had been renewed for twenty years. The time had now come for the reconsideration of the subject. The result was:—

Monopoly destroyed.

(1.) The destruction of the Company's monopoly, in defence of which the Court of Directors made a determined struggle. The trade to China was still to remain in their hands; but the trade to India was thrown open (§ 28).

Ecclesiastical Establishment.

(2.) An ecclesiastical establishment was formed, consisting of a Bishop of Calcutta, and an Archdeacon at each of the presidency towns. (Comp. § 103.)

The learned *Middleton* was the first Bishop of Calcutta. *Heber*, *Wilson*, and *Cotton*, among his successors, have left great names to be inscribed in the roll of British Indian worthies.

PART VII.—The Marquess of Hastings, 1813-1823. (Earl Moira.)

The Seventh Governor-General.

Earl Moira.

§ 73. Earl Moira (afterwards Marquess of Hastings) succeeded. He was a distinguished soldier, an experienced statesman, and a man of noble manners and character. He arrived in Calcutta in October 1813. He found the finances embarrassed, and many disputes

with native states pending. He was for nine years an indefatigable, resolute, and successful ruler. It was a truly critical period of British Indian history, in which he held the reins of government.

War with Nipâl 1814.

§ 74. The first dispute he had to settle was with the Court of Nipâl, where the Ghûrkas had recently made themselves formidable. These were recent conquerors of Nipâl (1767), acknowledged by the British, to whom they paid tribute for the lands about Makwanpûr. The native ruler of Nipâl had encroached on the British territory on every side, and moreover especially had imprisoned the Zamîndâr of Bûtwâl, who was under British protection, and had seized his territories. Eighteen English police-officers were murdered in Bûtwâl; and it became necessary to proceed in the most energetic manner to vindicate the national honour.

Butool or *Butaul*, in Oudh.)

Compare the Map, and Intro. § 9. The Plan of the War, 1814.

Four divisions of troops were sent. One was to march on Katmandû by way of Makwanpûr. The second was to take possession of Bûtwâl, Sheroâj, and Palpa. The third to penetrate the passes of the Dêra Dûn, occupy that valley, and seize the passes of the Jamna and the Ganges. The fourth, under General Ochterlony, was to act against the western provinces, where the flower of the Ghûrka troops were.

Discouraging aspect of the War.

The advance by the Dêra Dûn into Gurhwâl was slow. *Kalunga*, a strong fortress, twenty-six miles north from Hurdwâr, was taken after several failures, and utterly destroyed. Here General Gillespie, the hero of Vellore (§ 56), fell. General Ochterlony occupied, after immense labour, and by great bravery and skill, the heights of Râmgurh; and the Râja of *Balaspûr* was detached from the Nipâl cause. But on the whole the aspect of things was not cheering. The other detachment met with small reverses; and the Ghûrkas were elated, while the English troops were dispirited.

(*Belaspoor*, on the E. bank of the Satlaj, 70 miles N.E. from Lûdiâna.)

The disaffected throughout India, and especially the Mahrattas, rejoiced in the apparent failure of the British arms. (Ch. v. § 149.)

General Ochterlony's successes, 1815. (Intro. § 23.)

The capture of Maloun, by General Ochterlony, May 1815, was the first very decided advantage gained. The whole of the forts between the Jamna and the Satlaj were then yielded to the British, and Gurhwâl was evacuated.

Treaty with Nipâl, March 1816.

Negotiations for peace were now set on foot; and, though retarded by the insincerity and vacillation of the Nîpâl court, resulted at length in a treaty of peace, by which the territories of the Nîpâl state were reduced to their present dimensions; the Ghûrkas losing the territory between the Satlaj and the Gôgra.

To Sir David Ochterlony's judgment and skill the successful result of this war is chiefly due.

Rohilkhand, April 1816.

§ 75. Disturbances, which were soon put down, took place in Bareilly, the chief town of Rohilkhand, where Afghâns still abounded.

Mahratta affairs, 1817-1819.

§ 76. The events of the Marquess of Hastings' administration, as connected with the Mahratta history, have been detailed in chap. v. § 148–164.

They procured for him the applause of the whole British people. His name is honoured as that of the man who gave tranquillity and good order to Central India. Such wars gain for him that wages them the blessing of the "peace-maker."

The Fourth Mahratta War, 1817, 1818.

They include:—

(1.) The treacheries and downfall of Bâjî Râo II.;

(2.) The Pindârî war;

(3.) The treachery and downfall of Appâ Sahêb, Râja of Nâgpûr;

(4.) The restoration of the Râja of Satâra; and,

(5.) The treaties by which the houses of Sindia and Holkâr were deprived of all power of disturbing the tranquillity of India, while their own independence was secured.

In these wars twenty-eight actions were fought in the field; 120 forts captured, and nineteen treaties made with native princes.

The Governor-General was aided by that eminent statesman, George Canning; who, from June 1816 to 1822, was President of the Board of Control.

§ 77. The Marquess now retired. The Company's revenue had increased during his administration by £6,000,000 a year. He was a worthy follower of the Marquess Wellesley. Besides his elevation in the peerage, an estate of £60,000 was given him; and, at his death (in 1827), a further sum of £20,000 was placed in the hands of trustees for the benefit of his son.

Jan. 9, 1823.

The Marquess of Hastings' character and rewards.

His (perhaps) injudicious patronage of the firm of Palmer and Co. of Haidarâbâd caused him much trouble, and brought on him undeserved obloquy. [Comp. ch. iii. § 16 (12).]

Palmer and Co.

PART VIII.—Earl Amherst, 1823-1828.

The Eighth Governor-General.

§ 78. Mr. Canning was nominated to succeed the Marquess of Hastings; but, being appointed Foreign Secretary, he declined the nomination; and Lord Amherst, who had distinguished himself in his embassy to China, became the eighth Governor-General. He landed in Calcutta August 1, 1823.

Mr. Canning.

Lord Amherst.

Mr. Adam acted in the meanwhile (January 1 to August 1, 1823).

Mr. Frederick Adam.

Mr. Adam relieved the Nizâm of Haidarâbâd by lending him money to discharge his debts to the gigantic firm of Palmer & Co., and forbade any further pecuniary dealings of that firm with the Haidarâbâd court.

The Nizâm's debts.

The firm was ruined, but the Nizâm was saved (§ 77). (Ch. iii. § 16.)

§ 79. Lord Amherst's first undertaking was the war with *Birma*. The last wars took us to the Western

War with Birma.

Ghâts. This takes us to the farthest east of India, and beyond its borders.

(Comp. Intro. § 15.) Barma, Burma, or Brahma.

An adventurer from Pegu, called Alompra, in 1752, 3, obtained possession of Âva, enlarged the Birmese territories, subjugated Arakân and Munipûr, and placed Assam under a Birmese chief. He granted to the Company the island of Negrais and some land near Rangoon. He died in 1760.

Alompra.

Birmese insolence, 1818.

The insolent demand.

There were many causes of complaint against the court of Âva; but in 1818 a formal demand was made by the Birmese for the cession of Chittagong, Mûrshedâbâd, and Dacca, as belonging to the ancient kingdom of Arakân. This was, of course, treated with contempt. In 1823 the island of Shâhpûrî was occupied by thirteen sepoys, for the protection of British subjects. A body of a thousand Birmese expelled them. Cachâr was next attacked, and British troops were sent to aid the fugitive Râja. The arrogance of the Birmese was unbounded, and it became necessary to send an expedition to thoroughly humble them.

Shâhpûrî occupied, 1823.

NOTE.—There was a British factory at *Bassein*, where all the Europeans were murdered in 1759.
There was then a walled factory at *Rangoon*, where a Resident was appointed in 1796.
French influence was at work in Âva, as elsewhere, against the English for many years.

The Birmese expedition. (Intro. § 38.) Sir Archibald Campbell. (This is one of the branches of the Irawâdy.) Rangoon, May 11, 1824. Kemendin.

The Bengâl and Madras troops met at Port Cornwallis, in the Great Andaman, in May 1824, and sailed at once to the mouth of the *Rangoon River*. Sir Archibald Campbell was in command.

Rangoon was taken. The stockades at Kemendîn were stormed, Major R. Sale (the hero of Jellâlâbâd), being the first to scale them. The force had now to endure the monsoon rains, sickness, and want. The commissariat department at Calcutta had failed in its duty; but Sir T. Munro, Governor of Madras, saved the army by promptly sending supplies.

Negrais and Cheduba.

Negrais and Cheduba were then carried. Ten

stockades were stormed in one day. Martaban was taken, and successful expeditions were undertaken in the Tenasserim coast and in Assam.

Martaban, Aug. 1824.

The most noted Birmese chief, Mahâ Bandûla, who had 20,000 men under his command, now appeared on the scene. At the capture of Donabew that leader was killed by a rocket.

Mahâ Bandûla. Killed at Donabew, Feb. 28, 1825.

Sir Archibald pushed on to Prome. Meanwhile Arakân was gallantly taken by another body of troops under General Morrison and Commodore Hayes.

Feb. 1825.

Negotiations for peace were now entered into, but broken off by the refusal of the King of Âva (who had not even yet fully learnt the power of the English) to make any concession. The British force advanced, under great difficulties, to Patanagoh, where a treaty was nearly concluded, but again broken off.

Dec. 1825.

Mellûn, on the opposite bank of the Irawâdy, was then stormed, and the troops advanced to the city of Pagahn, where a decisive victory was gained by a British force of 2,000 against a Birmese army of 18,000. The English prisoners were now released.

Victory of Pagahn, Feb. 1826.

Finally, at Yendabû, within four days' march (forty-five miles) of the capital, a treaty was signed, by which the King of Âva agreed to give up all claims to Assam, Cachâr, and Jyntîa; to cede Arakân, Râmrî, Cheduba, and Sandowy, with the provinces of Yeh, Tavoy, Mergui, and Tenasserim, the Salwîn river being the boundary; to pay a crore of rupees as a partial indemnification for the expenses of the war, and as a proof of the "sincere disposition of the Birmese Government to maintain the relations of amity and peace between the two nations." These provinces have wonderfully prospered since their cession. Akyâb and Moulmein have become flourishing ports.

Feb. 1826. Treaty of Yendabû.

Cessions from the Birmese, 1826.

(Or, Martaban River.)

NOTE.—Arakân is divided into four districts—*Arakân*, *Ramrî*, *Sandowy*, and *Cheduba*. Akyâb is the principal harbour.
This province was once the seat of a very extended dominion. (Intro. § 15.)

Summary.

Thus ended a just war, carried on with wonderful bravery, and concluded by a peace, the tenor of which remarkably illustrates the moderation of the conquerors.

(Comp. § 140.)

A second war, in 1852-53, was necessary to ensure the permanent peace and prosperity of Further India.

The Barrackpûr mutiny.

§ 80. Connected with the First Birmese War was the disgraceful Barrackpûr Mutiny.

47th Native Infantry.

Sir E. Paget's summary justice.

The 47th N.I., resenting certain minor hardships to which they were temporarily subjected, broke out into open mutiny. Sir E. Paget, the commander-in-chief, hastened to the spot, surrounded the mutineers; and, on their obstinately refusing to submit, caused a battery to open upon them. They fled at once, and some who were taken prisoners were executed. The number of the regiment was erased from the list of the army.

The taking of Bhartpûr, 1826.

§ 81. The taking of Bhartpûr (which had been assaulted unsuccessfully by Lord Lake [ch. v. § 137]), January 18, 1826, is another event that renders this administration remarkable, and which produced a salutary feeling throughout India.

The following is a summary of the events that led to the war with Bhartpûr:—

Râja Bandhar Sing died without issue in 1823.

His brother, Baldêo Sing, succeeded. Durjan Sâl, son of a younger brother, however, contested the succession.

Disputed succession in Bhartpûr, 1825.

Sir D. Ochterlony, Resident in Mâlwâ and Râjpûtâna, examined these conflicting claims; and the result of his report was, that the Governor-General addressed Baldêo Sing a congratulatory letter on his accession, and authorised Sir David to give him formal investiture. The Resident did so, and also acknowledged his son, Balwant Sing, as his successor. Baldêo died the same month (January 26, 1825). Durjan Sâl instantly took possession of the fort, murdered the uncle of the young Râja, and seized his person. Sir David at once took prompt measures to put down the usurper; but was

Sir David Ochterlony. 15th June, 1825.

forbidden to interfere by the Governor-General. This not unnaturally led to his resignation, which was followed by his death in a few weeks. For fifty years a soldier, he had served in every Indian war from the time of Haidar downwards. He was the especial hero of the war in Nîpâl, and had distinguished himself as a diplomatist. (Comp. § 74.)

Sir C. Metcalfe now arrived from Haidarâbâd to occupy the position of Resident of Delhi and of Râjpûtâna. The Governor-General was decidedly opposed to interference; but the able paper submitted by the new Resident, and the opinions of the Council, effected a change in his sentiments. Sir C. Metcalfe in Delhi. (§ 105.)

Sir C. Metcalfe's reasoning may be condensed thus:— His reasoning.

"The British have by degrees become the paramount state in India. It is their mission to preserve tranquillity in India. It is incumbent on them to refuse to recognise any but a lawful successor. British influence is too pervading to allow of neutrality. If the Government allows anarchy to prevail in Bhartpûr, it invites the return of the confusion and pillage of 1817 and 1818." Intervention a duty.

He therefore urged that Balwant Sing should be supported, and a proper regency established. Lord Amherst gracefully yielded to the opinion of this eminent statesman.

It was evident that Durjan Sâl relied upon the supposed impregnability of the fortress of Bhartpûr; and supposed, with truth, that all who disliked the ascendancy of the British in India wished him success in his bold defiance of the paramount power. Durjan Sâl's false hopes.

Lord Combermere, commander-in-chief, marched from Muttra, and the memorable siege began on the 28th December 1825. The vast fortifications of mud could not be beaten down by artillery; but a mine, with ten thousand pounds of powder, made a practicable breach. Lord Combermere takes the fort, Jan. 1826.

It was stormed on the 18th January 1826 by two columns under Generals Reynell and Nicholls. The fort was dismantled, and its walls levelled to the ground.

The young Râja was reinstated, and peace restored.

Bhartpûr affairs since 1826. Intro. § 36.

He died in 1854, and his son, Jeswant Singh, a minor, then four years of age, succeeded. This state has been in the interval under a Regency Council, with the supervision of a British Political Agent. The Râja was formally placed on the musnud in 1859.

The Straits Settlements.

§ 82. In 1824, Malacca, Singapore, and the Dutch possessions on the Continent of India (Negapatam, &c.), were ceded to England, in exchange for Bencoolen, in Sumatra.

See map of Birma. Intro. § 15.

At Singapore arrangements were made with the native chiefs, by which the Company obtained the absolute possession of the island. The other British settlements in that quarter are Pulo Penang, or Prince of Wales Island, and the province of Wellesley on the mainland. The island was given by the King of Kirda, in 1786, to Captain Light, the master of a country ship, as a marriage portion with the King's daughter. He made it over to the East India Company, and was made its Governor. The province of Wellesley was purchased. The whole of the Straits Settlements were made over to the Colonial Office in 1866.

Nâgpûr.

§ 83. A treaty was concluded with the young Râja of Nâgpûr on his attaining his majority, December 1826. (Ch. v. § 159.)

Sir T. Munro.

§ 84. Sir T. Munro, who had held the government of Madras from 1820, died of cholera near Gûti in July 1827. He was the chief advocate of the *Ryotwâr* system. (See Gen. Index.)

Mr. Bayley acting Governor-General, 1828, for four months.

§ 85. Earl Amherst, who can hardly be numbered among the more eminent rulers of British India, quitted India in March 1828; Mr. Butterworth Bayley, one of Lord Wellesley's disciples, acting as Governor-General until his successor arrived.

Simla.

(Map, ch. xi.)

Simla was first occupied as a residence by Lord Amherst.

NOTE.—*Simla* is in Sirmûr, 7,000 feet above the level of the sea. Taken from the Ghûrkas in 1814-16 (§ 74).

PART IX.—Lord William Cavendish Bentinck, 1828–1835.

§ 86. Lord W. Bentinck, the NINTH Governor-General, arrived in India in July 1828, and quitted it in March 1835. Lord William Bentinck.

About the same time Mr. Lushington was appointed to Madras, and Sir John Malcolm to Bombay (§ 31). (Ch. v. § 135, 151, 165.) This was but a tardy recognition of the services of this latter great administrator. Mr. Lushington. Sir John Malcolm.

§ 87. The period of Lord W. C. Bentinck's administration, which was distinguished by progress, improvements, necessary reforms, the sweeping away of obsolete and injurious institutions, and the introduction of an enlightened and philanthropic policy; was especially marked by:— Summary of Lord William Bentinck's administration.

(1.) The re-arrangement of Mysôr affairs, and the annexation of Kûrg; (§ 89, 90.)
(2.) Many economical reforms. (§ 91.)
(3.) Improvements in the judicial system; (§ 92.)
(4.) Abolition of Satî and the repression of Thuggism; (§ 93–95.)
(5.) The downfall of the exclusively Oriental system of education, and the establishment of the European system; (§ 96.)
(6.) Commencement of steam communication with India; (§ 98.)
(7.) The assassination of Mr. Fraser, and its punishment; (§ 100.)
(8.) Negotiations with the rulers of Sind, Kâbul, and the Panjâb; (§ 101.)
(9.) Disturbances in Jôdhpûr, Joypûr, and Bhôpâl; and, (§ 102.)
(10.) The renewal of the Company's charter in 1833. (§ 103.)

§ 88. Lord W. Bentinck had been Governor of Madras, and was harshly and abruptly recalled in 1806. He was singularly benevolent, upright, firm, and liberal. He was anxious for this appointment, as tending to free his reputation from any stain that might be supposed to rest upon it from his former dismissal. It His character. (§ 58.) (§ 55.)

did so. A statue erected to his honour in Calcutta, with an inscription from the pen of Macaulay, preserves the remembrance of "*his wise, upright, and paternal administration.*"

Mysôr under British rule, 1832.

General Cubbon. 1836-1861.

§ 89. The administration of Mysôr was at this time assumed by the British Government, and placed under the system which still so efficiently provides for the welfare of that flourishing province. General *Sir Mark Cubbon* was appointed Commissioner; and for twenty-five years, administered its affairs with astonishing skill and energy. (Ch. xii. § 60.)

Kûrg affairs, 1834.

Intro. § 14.

(Ch. xii. § 23, 37, 44.)

§ 90. The principality of Kûrg, on the confines of Mysôr, is of great antiquity. The Vîra Râjas are mentioned as existing in A.D. 1583 by Ferishta.

It was subdued by Haidar, and in 1779 the heir, Vîra Râjêndra, was excluded from the succession, and imprisoned. Tippû made him a Musalmân by force; but he escaped, and after a long and chivalrous struggle regained his dominions in 1787. His nephew, Vîra Râjêndra Udaiyâr was Râja in 1832. He was a madman. Incest and wholesale murders are among the crimes of which he was guilty. Of the royal house he left no male alive. At length he defied the British authority; and, when every means of conciliation had been exhausted, troops were sent. After a short struggle Markâra was taken possession of, and the Râja was sent to Benâres. He afterwards was permitted to visit England, and died in London in 1863. As this monster's cruelty had removed every one who could have any pretensions to succeed him, the state came directly under British Government. The daughter of the ex-Râja, the Princess Gouramma, was baptized in London, 1852, Queen Victoria being a sponsor. She died in 1864. The ten days' war in Kûrg formed the only break in the profound peace of the seven years of Lord W. Bentinck's administration. Lieutenant-Colonel J. S. Fraser was the first Commissioner.

April 6, 1834.

Reforms.

§ 91. Lord W. Bentinck had to perform the unpleasant task of carrying out extensive reductions and reforms in the civil and military establishments of the Company.

Half-Batta order.

The first was the abolition of Batta, or the reduction of

it to one-half the former amount. This was an *allowance* given to the troops when in the field, doubled when they marched beyond the Company's frontier, and reduced to a half when they were in cantonments where quarters were provided for them. This reduction of allowances, which was certainly a hard one, aroused much indignation. Lord Combermere opposed it, and resigned. The Duke of Wellington and the home Government, however, strongly upheld it. The measure was, in fact, wholly of home origin, and had been urged on preceding Governors-General. Lord W. Bentinck, though himself opposed to it, carried it out, undeterred by the abuse of private individuals, or of the public press. The saving effected was insignificant, and the irritation it produced was great and lasting.

Committees were appointed, which reduced the annual civil expenditure by about half a million sterling, and the military by about one million. — Retrenchments.

§ 92. Judicial reforms were also introduced, tending to relieve European functionaries from the overwhelming pressure of work. The whole system in regard to criminal justice was remodelled. — Judicial and Revenue Reforms.

Sadr Amins were appointed, who were empowered to decide cases to the value of 5,000 rupees, and to receive appeals from the inferior Amins. The vernacular languages were substituted for the Persian in all courts. — Sadr Amins.

A Court of Appeal was created at Allâhâbâd for the Upper Provinces.

The *Revenue settlement* of the North-west Provinces, carried out by Mr. Robert Bird (the Todar Mal of the Company's Government), still confers a blessing upon the millions under the British dominion in those districts. This minute and accurate survey of these districts, with the necessary examination of titles, the decision of disputes, and the ascertainment and register — Mr. R. Bird's Revenue settlement of the N. W. Provinces.

of each man's holding, was a work of which England may justly be proud.

The abolition of Satî, Dec. 29, 1829.

§ 93. Lord William's name is more closely connected with the abolition of "Suttee."

"Satî" in Sanskrit means a "virtuous woman." It is a term applied to the woman who immolates herself on the funeral pile of her deceased husband. This barbarous superstition had prevailed from remote antiquity, though really unsanctioned by Hindû authorities; and the rulers hesitated to interfere. Lord Wellesley, in his day, wished to restrain it; and some cautionary measures were then partially enforced. Lord W. Bentinck and his two councillors, Mr. Butterworth Bayley and Sir C. Metcalfe, boldly and wisely caused an enactment to be promulgated, making it a punishable crime in any way to aid and abet a "Suttee." Police-officers were authorised to prevent it, and to apprehend all persons engaged in such a transaction. Twenty-five times the attempt was made to perform Suttee afterwards, but the police quietly stopped the consummation of the murderous rite.

Thus was this horrible crime put an end to. In Bengâl, Bahâr, and Orissa, the number of victims had averaged 600 a year!

[The prohibition was extended and enforced by Lord Hardinge.]

In the states of Râjpûtâna the practice is now nearly, if not quite, extinct. On the death, in 1861, of the Mahâ Râna of Oudipûr, the first Hindû prince in India, and the acknowledged head of the Râjpûts, none of the wives could be prevailed upon to immolate herself. A favourite slave girl was the victim.

The "Lex Loci." Offices thrown open to natives of India.

§ 94. A law was also passed by which a convert to Muhammadanism, or to Christianity, was protected from the operation of the Hindû law, which declared such convert an outcast, and deprived him of his share

of the family inheritance. This is evidently a just and necessary provision. If this "Lex Loci" was opposed to the intolerant feelings of some of the people, another of the Governor-General's measures was most popular, as it was certainly just. Natives of India had, from the time of Lord Cornwallis, been excluded from all offices, except the very lowest (§ 24). The Regulations of 1831 threw open many important offices to natives of every class. They are now found in every department of the public service. Thus Lord W. Bentinck shares with Lord Wellesley the honour of being the *Akbar* of the Company's rule.

The Regulations of 1831.

§ 95. The humane and active measures adopted for the extirpation of the bands of *Thugs*, which then infested Central India, were a boon to the whole country. These Thugs were said by tradition to have sprung from seven tribes, all of the Muhammadan religion, living near Delhi. They nevertheless especially devoted themselves to the worship of Kâlî, Dêvî, or Bhavânî, the wife of Siva, who is represented in the legends of the Purâṇas, as having appeared in various terrific shapes for the destruction of demons. Human sacrifices are supposed to be especially pleasing to her.

The Thugs.

(Ch. i. § 10.)

Added to this, the Thugs were fatalists of the most thorough kind.

These Thugs, assuming the garb of peaceable pilgrims or merchants, travelled in bands, and were accustomed to decoy and murder persons travelling through the forests of Central India.

When a favourable opportunity presented itself, they threw a noose round the neck of their victim, strangled, rifled, and buried him in an incredibly short space of time, every precaution being taken to keep the murder absolutely secret.

Their system of murder.

Thus multitudes of travellers were perpetually vanishing from the earth, and leaving no trace behind them.

To the Thug this was his profession, his religion, his lawful calling. "My fathers have been Thugs for twenty generations," said one of them.

Major Sleeman, 1829. (He was afterwards Resident of Oudh, and died on his homeward voyage in 1856.)

From time to time the Company's Government had striven to check these practices; but in 1829 Major Sleeman (afterwards Sir William Sleeman, one of the great philanthropists of the Anglo-Indian rule) was appointed commissioner for the extermination of the Thugs. Others were appointed to aid him; and the result has been the almost absolute suppression of the crime.

The labours of Captain Hall and Captain Dixon in Mairwarra resulted in the civilisation to a great extent of the *Mairs*, a wild people resembling the Bhîls. (Comp. ch. v. § 165.)

Oriental system of Education.

§ 96. The "Oriental system of education" was made to give way to the "European system," by a resolution of Government, that "all the funds appropriated to the purposes of education should be employed in imparting to the native population a knowledge of English literature and science through the medium of the English language alone. In bringing about the change T. B. Macaulay's (afterwards Lord Macaulay) influence was largely used. He resided in Calcutta from 1835 to 1840 as the fourth, or legislative member, of the Supreme Council. Mr. (Sir Charles) Trevelyan and Dr. A. Duff were two other untiring leaders of the advocates of English education.

Macaulay in Calcutta.

The great leader of the Orientalists was H. H. Wilson, a distinguished Sanskrit scholar.

The new school went greatly too far, and it was reserved for Lord Auckland partially to correct the error; but there can be no doubt that immense sums had been wasted in the endowment of Oriental scholarships, and in translations into Sanskrit and Arabic. To promote the intelligent study of the vernacular languages of the country is a very different matter.

English and the Vernacular.

The great impulse to native education must, it will be conceded,

be given through English. It is for well-educated natives to revive and enrich their own vernacular literature. The education imparted to them must tend to fit and inspire them to do this work.

The "Overland" route to India.

The progress of steam.

§ 97. The commencement of steam communication with India constitutes a great æra in the history of the connection of European nations with the East, and, in fact, in the history of half the globe.

1830. The *Hugh Lindsay* made the first voyage from Bombay to Suez. **1834.** In 1834 the matter was taken up by the House of Commons; and, though the Court of Directors were indifferent to the subject, the *Peninsular and Oriental Company*, in 1843, sent their first steamer to Calcutta; **1843.** and the result has been a system, ever improving, and, in 1868, conferring upon all India the boon of a regular weekly communication with England; **1868.** the time occupied in the transmission of letters being from twenty-eight to thirty days.

The Governor-General at Ootacamund. Intro. § 16.

Outsiders tolerated.

§ 98. Lord W. Bentinck spent a part of 1834 at Ootacamund, during which time the orders were promulgated which constituted Âgra a distinct Presidency, under a Lieutenant-Governor. At this time also all restrictions upon the settlement of Europeans in India were removed.

Râmmôhan Roy.

§ 99. In 1833 Râmmôhan Roy, a distinguished native scholar and reformer, died at Bristol. He had done much to weaken the attachment of his countrymen to idolatry. Unfortunately he allowed himself to become the agent of the Court of Delhi, which sent him to England to endeavour to obtain an increase to the king's stipend. He was thus lost to his countrymen.

Mr. Fraser's murder at Delhi.

§ 100. In 1834 Mr. Fraser, political commissioner and agent of the Governor-General at Delhi, was shot dead by an assassin. He had offended Shams-ud-dîn Khân, the Nuwâb of Ferôzpûr, who instigated the murder. The Nuwâb and his tool were both hanged at Delhi.

Interference in North-west and Afghân politics, 1831.

§ 101. During Lord W. Bentinck's administration, a fear of Russian intrigues in the countries north-west of the Indus, led the British Government to interfere in the politics of the Panjâb, Sind, and Afghânistân.

Opening of the Indus.

Negotiations were carried on with the various princes through whose territories the Indus flows, for the free passage of vessels laden with British merchandise. Treaties for this object were made with the Amîrs of Sind, the Râja of Bahâwalpûr, and Ranjît Sing, the ruler of Lâhôr. The Governor-General met this great chieftain at Rûpar on the Satlaj in 1831. (Ch. xi. § 25.)

Meeting with Ranjit Sing at Rûpar. Colonel Henry Pottinger. (Ch. v. § 165.)

Colonel Henry Pottinger was the envoy to Sind. He found the Amîrs most averse to the idea of any connection with England. They at length yielded.

The result seems to have been that Ranjît Sing espoused the cause of the ex-king of Kâbul, Shâh Shuja. (See § 110.)

Râjpût affairs.

§ 102. The affairs of the Râjpût and Bhôpâl states require our attention at this period. They illustrate the necessity for constant, firm, and kindly interference on the part of the British Government; in which respect Lord W. Bentinck failed to do his manifest duty.

Oudipûr. (Ch. iii. § 6 (12).] (Intro. 36.)

(1.) *Oudipûr.* Here *Bhîm Sing*, who had reigned for more than fifty years, died in 1828; and was succeeded, after many disputes, by *Jîvan Sing*.

The present Mâha Râna Sambhâ Sing succeeded in 1861, being then fourteen years of age. The state was consequently under British supervision till 1865.

Mârwâr.

(2.) Jôdpûr or Mârwâr. Here the Râja Mân Sing was engaged in perpetual quarrels with his Thâkûrs, with the neighbouring states, and with the British authorities. In 1834 he was finally reduced to obedience.

He died in 1845. Takt Sing of Ahmadnagar was elected by the nobles to succeed. It has the reputation of being the worst governed state in India.

Jeypûr.

(3.) Jeypûr. This is the wealthiest state of Râjpûtâna, and full of historical associations.

Here a dispute regarding the regency led to British interference. The Resident was wounded in an affray, and his assistant, Mr. Blake, killed, in 1834. The murderers were discovered and punished.

Under its present Râja, Râm Sing, it is well governed and prosperous.

Bhôpâl.

Sikander Begum.

(4.) Bhôpâl became closely allied to England in 1818 (ch. v. § 163). Soon after this the Nuwâb died; and his widow, the able and energetic *Sikander Begum*, assumed the government. She affianced her daughter to her nephew, whom she adopted as heir to the throne; but retained the power in her own hands. He appealed to the Governor-General; but it was not till Sir C. Metcalfe, as Acting Governor-General, interfered in 1835, that this person obtained his rightful authority. He soon died, and his daughter succeeded. She governed, till her death in 1868, with wonderful ability and wisdom. She was faithful to the paramount power in the Mutiny of 1857, and was decorated with the grand cross "of the illustrious Star of India."

The Charter of 1833, 4.

§ 103. The East India Company's charter (§ 72) expired in 1834.

In prospect of this, parliamentary committees were appointed to investigate the Company's management of its extensive affairs. It was almost unanimously agreed that *the monopoly of the China trade* should be abandoned. Thus the Company ceased to possess any commercial character; though it was decided that its political functions should not be disturbed.

China trade thrown open.

Ecclesiastical foundations.

Some additions to the ecclesiastical establishment were made, including the foundation of Episcopal Sees at Madras and Bombay.

The result of the extinction of the Company as a commercial body was beneficial. It elevated the views and the policy of the Directors to somewhat of an imperial character.

Beneficial effects of abolition of the monopoly.

The trade with China doubled in the following ten years; and the British exports to India and Ceylon increased in the same period from 2½ millions to 6¾.

The dividends of the Company were guaranteed by Parliament at £630,000 a year, to be entirely redeemable in 1874.

Agra. Âgra was made the capital of a fourth Presidency, and Sir C. Metcalfe appointed to it; but in 1834 this was changed, and the North-western Provinces have

Introd. § 9. been administered by a Lieutenant-Governor from that time.

The new charter was granted in August 1833. It came into force in April 1834.

Character of Lord William Bentinck. § 104. Lord W. Bentinck left India in May 1835. He has been accused of vanity and a love of innovation. He was not a great politician, but his benevolence is unquestioned. Lord Dalhousie alone has surpassed him in the development of the resources of India.

His Administration. He was guided by instructions from England in regard to his economical measures, and the policy of non-interference in the affairs of native states, which he carried too far. Indifference on the part of the paramount power in India, to what is done in the minor states, is always cruel and impolitic.

Sir C. Metcalfe, Acting Governor-General, 1835-1836. § 105. Sir C. METCALFE succeeded provisionally, being senior member of Council in Calcutta at the time. He had just reached Âgra to assume his appointment of Governor of the new Presidency.

He had early distinguished himself as envoy (1808) to the court of Ranjît Sing (§ 67; ch. xi. § 25), and afterwards as Resident at Delhi (to 1819) and at Haidarâbâd (to 1827). Thence he went to Calcutta as member of Council. He was, after leaving India finally, Governor of Jamaica (1839 to 1841); and Governor-General of Canada (1843 to 1845). He was only second to Warren Hastings in genius and knowledge of the requirements of Indian diplomacy.

But Sir C. Metcalfe was only Acting Governor-General.

The high office was offered to Mountstuart Elphinstone, who declined it on the ground of broken health. It was then proposed to make Metcalfe permanent Governor-General.

The Whigs opposed this, on the ground that such an appointment should only be filled from England.

Lord Heytesbury was then appointed; but on the eve of his departure, the Whigs again came into power, revoked Lord Heytesbury's appointment, and conferred it on Lord Auckland. Metcalfe returned to Âgra in 1826, but soon resigned in consequence of the displeasure of the Court of Directors, excited by the "liberation of the press." Great as he undoubtedly was, he had been too long in India, and was perhaps unfitted to be in the van of progress.

Press freed.

The one great act of this administration (which lasted till August 1836), was the *liberation of the press.*

The press in India at first had been subjected to a censorship, then to certain stringent rules drawn up by the Government.

It was now freed from all restrictions, save those of the laws that govern all orders of men in the realm. Macaulay, as member of Council, supported Metcalfe in this matter.

There was, it may be argued, imprudence in Metcalfe's passing such a measure when his tenure of office was merely temporary.

On the whole, however, the concession has proved beneficial, though the experiment was full of danger.

PART X.—Lord Auckland, 1836–1842.

§ 106. Lord Auckland, the TENTH Governor-General, arrived in India in March 1836, and left it in March 1842.

Summary.

§ 107. His administration is marked by:

A. The disputed succession in Oudh (1837).

B. The supersession of the treacherous Râja of Satârâ (1839.)

CH. X. § 108, 110. A.D. 1839.

X. Lord Auckland, 1836-1842. The Afghân expedition.

C. The Afghân expedition and disasters (1839-1842). The idea of this expedition was conceived in July 1837; and the catastrophe happened in January 1842; just before Lord Auckland's departure.

D. The occupation of Kurnûl.

E. The first Chinese war (1840).

Oudh affairs, 1837.

§ **108.** *Oudh.* Nâsir-ud-dîn Haidar, King of Oudh, a profligate and weak prince, died in July 1837. Two persons had been acknowledged by him as his sons, but afterwards disavowed.

The Begum wished that the elder of these should succeed. The British Resident supported the claim of an uncle of the deceased King, Nâsir-ud-daula. An insurrection was headed by the Begum, but soon put down.

Satârâ, 1839.

§ **109.** *Satârâ* (ch. v. § 147–164). The Râja was deposed by Sir James Carnac in 1839. His brother was placed on the throne in his stead. Treachery unhappily characterised the whole dynasty, which owed everything to England.

The Afghân expedition, 1839.

§ 110. *The Afghân expedition.*

(Map. p. 50.)

(*a.*) The lands between Persia and the Indus (see Map), inhabited by warlike hordes, have often given conquerors to India, from Mâhmûd of Ghaznî to Ahmed Shâh Abdâlî, who was of the great family of the *Sudozyes*.

(*zye* = son.)

The chief of these tribes was that which possessed Kâbul. Dôst Muhammad was then on the throne of that city.

§ 69.

(*b.*) When Mountstuart Elphinstone visited Kâbul in 1808, the sovereign was *Shâh Shuja*,* a descendant of Ahmed Shâh Abdâlî. This king was dethroned shortly

* Ahmed Shâh Abdâlî. Ch. iii. § 15 (10).
Teimûr Shâh. Ch. iii. § 19.
Zemân Shâh. Ch. x. § 38. Shâh Shuja.

after; and the states of Afghânistân were divided among various members of a rival family, called the *Barakzye* tribe. The most powerful of these was *Dôst Muhammad*, who possessed Kâbul and Ghaznî. Ranjît Sing, the ruler of the Panjâb, had seized on Kashmîr and the districts east of the Indus, including Peshâwar. *Herât* was occupied by a descendant of the Abdâlî, and Balkh was annexed to Bokhâra. (390 miles from Kâbul.)

(*c.*) Shâh Shuja lived in Lûdiâna, in exile, under the protection of the British power; he had, in fact, a pension of 4,000 rupees a month from that Government. Shâh Shuja.

An expedition he made in 1834, with the hope of recovering his lost dominions, was unsuccessful, owing to the bravery of Dôst Muhammad. Shâh Shuja returned in 1835 to his old place of exile. 1834. 1835.

(*d.*) Soon after this, Persia began to aim at the subjugation of all these provinces up to the Indus, and began by attacking Herât. The Russian Government encouraged the Shâh of Persia (who was to repeat the exploits of Nâdir Shâh) in these undertakings; and there was a prospect (as many thought) that all Western Asia would soon form one vast confederacy, under Russian influence; thus threatening the tranquillity of British India. The question was:—*Shall England interfere in matters beyond the Indus? And if so, how?* Persia and Russia. British interference necessary?

The proverb is current in the East:—"*He who would rule Hindûstân must first conquer Kâbul.*" All previous rulers of India had done so. Must England also acknowledge, that paramount influence in Kâbul is essential to the lords of Hindûstân?

Captain Burnes (afterwards Sir Alexander) who had been sent as envoy to Kâbul, did much by his representations to determine the British authorities to the policy of active interference. Burnes.

(*e.*) Lord Auckland resolved to restore *Shâh Shuja*, Shâh Shuja to be restored.

whose claims were thought to be better founded than those of Dôst Muhammad, and whose cause was believed to be the more popular in Afghânistân. Thus, it was said, we should have a friendly and even dependent power in Kâbul as a bulwark against Russian aggression in the North-West. The whole scheme was foolish. If Lord Auckland had bent his energies to effect a reconciliation between Dôst Muhammad and Ranjît Sing, and had established friendly relations with the Afghân Court, the war would have been rendered unnecessary. Dôst Muhammad was prepared to act as an ally of England: Lord Auckland threw him into the arms of Russia. A treaty was signed, however, between Ranjît Sing, Shâh Shuja, and the British in June 1838; and a British force was marched to the Indus, for the invasion of Afghânistân. Everyone acquainted with India regarded the expedition with dismay.

The tripartite treaty.

1838.

Sir J. Keane's army of the Indus.

1839.

This army, called "*the army of the Indus*," was drawn from all the three Presidencies, and was under the command of Sir John Keane. One division of it was called the Shâh's army, and the other the Shâhzâda's (or Prince's), being nominally under the command of Teimûr, the son of Shâh Shuja.

Mr. W. H. MacNaghten.

(*f.*) Mr. W. H. MacNaghten was appointed envoy and Minister at the Court of Shâh Shuja. He was a profound Oriental scholar, had served in many capacities with honour, and was then Secretary to the Supreme Government.

Defence of Herât. Siege raised, Sept. 9, 1838.

(*g.*) Meanwhile the Shâh of Persia's army, 40,000 strong, which had laid siege to Herât, the gate of Afghânistân, was compelled to retreat, mainly through the genius and gallantry of Lieutenant Eldred Pottinger, who had been sent into Central Asia by his uncle Sir Henry Pottinger, Resident of Katch, to pursue ethnological researches. This led to a reduction of the forces

sent to Afghânistân, and might well have put an end to the enterprise. The defence of Herât by Pottinger may fairly be compared with Clive's defence of Arcot.

(*h.*) The "Shâh's army" marched from Ferôz-pûr in December, crossed the Indus, took possession of Bukkur, thence advanced to Shikarpûr, to Dadur, at the entrance of the *Bolân Pass*, and to Kettah, where it arrived March 26, 1839; and was followed by the Bombay force in April.

Army marches through Sind to Kandahâr.

(Its crest is 5,793 feet high. Its length about 54 miles.)

Kurâchî was taken in February by a naval armament. The Amîrs of Sind were opposed to the passage of the British army, but their objections were roughly set aside. (§ 125.)

(Comp. Introd. § 18, and map.)

The army passed through the Kojut Pass, and thence to *Kandahâr*, where all had arrived early in May. There Shâh Shuja was solemnly enthroned. The march had been one of terrible privation, bravely borne. While the force was recruiting at Kandahâr, tidings reached them of the death of the Panjâb lion, Ranjît Sing, 27th June, 1839. A grand meeting between him and Lord Auckland had taken place in November 1838, only second in magnificence to the meeting at Rûpar (§ 101).

Enthronement of Shâh Shuja, 1839.) (280 miles S.W. of Kâbul.)

Death of Ranjît Sing, 1839. (Ch. xi. § 25, 26.)

(*i.*) The force now marched on towards Kâbul, and the leaders were surprised to find Ghaznî a well-fortified city. They had no battering-train; but the Kâbul gate was blown open with a charge of 900 lbs. of gunpowder. Major Thompson of the Bengâl Engineers was the real captor of Ghaznî. Brigadier Sale (the immortal hero of Jellâlâbâd) and Colonel Dennie were among the foremost of a band of heroes who stormed the fortress. Thus "the bride of the East" came into the hands of the English.

Storming of Ghaznî, 1839.

The army moved on and entered Kâbul August 7, Dôst Muhammad having fled before it to Bokhâra.

An auxiliary force which had marched through the

Khyber Pass, having taken Alî Musjid and Jellâlâbâd by the way, arrived at Kâbul early in September.

Army sent back. A subsidiary force retained.

(*j.*) The Shâh being thus restored to his kingdom, the army was sent back; General Nott and Colonel Sale remaining with a part of the Bengâl force to defend the newly restored king. This subsidiary body of troops was left there against Shâh Shuja's wishes. Sir W. MacNaghten was Resident at the court of the restored king. The difficulties of the supposed conquerors began with the completion of the military enterprise.

The Bombay force, under General Willshire, on their homeward way, took Kelât, the Khan of which had most treacherously attacked the army on its march towards Kâbul.

Honours.

(*k.*) Lord Auckland was now rewarded by being created Earl of Auckland. Sir John Keane was made Lord Keane of Ghaznî. Mr. MacNaghten and Colonel Henry Pottinger (afterwards Governor of Madras) were created Baronets. Many others were knighted, among whom were Robert Sale and Alexander Burnes. A great many severe, and sometimes disastrous, conflicts had to be engaged in, before Afghânistân was even nominally subdued. The last was at Parwân, a village in the Panjshu valley, near the Ghôrband Pass, where

Dôst Muhammad surrenders.

Dôst Muhammad sustained a final defeat, and surrendered himself to Sir W. MacNaghten (November 1, 1840).

He was treated with respect, and sent to Calcutta, where he had a pension assigned to him, and was an honoured guest at the Government House.

The calm before the storm, 1841.

(*l.*) Profound peace prevailed (at least on the surface) from that time till the beginning of October 1841. Sir William had been nominated to the Governorship of Bombay, and was on the eve of departure, when the Ghiljî chiefs revolted. Sir R. Sale was marching to Jellâlâbâd, on his return to India, and was encountered

by these insurgents. He forced the Kûrd Kâbul Pass, made his way with continual fighting to Tazîn, thence to Juduluck, in the direction of Gundamuck, and so to Jellâlâbâd (November 12), which he found invested on every side by hordes of enemies. *Afghânistân had risen.* And the scheme of the insurgents was, that the British should be permitted to set out on their return to India; but should be by degrees cut off, till only one man was left alive; and that he should be placed, deprived of his limbs, at the eastern entrance of the Khyber Pass, with a letter in his teeth, announcing him to be the last survivor of the Afghân expedition. General Sale's skill and bravery prevented the full consummation of this plan.

Afghânistân rises against the British and Shâh Shuja, 1841.

Jellâlâbâd was a ruinous fortress; but Sale and Major Broadfoot soon set it to rights, turned out the Afghân population, and put everything into such a state as to defy his countless enemies.

(Comp. § 117.)

(*m.*) Meanwhile at Kâbul the storm broke on the morning of 2nd November 1841. Sir Alexander Burnes was assassinated, with his brother and other officers.

Kâbul massacre, Nov. 2, 1841.

There were brave men at Kâbul; but an unaccountable apathy seized upon those in command. Captain Colin Mackenzie gallantly held the fort of Nishan Khân in the city of Kâbul, against overwhelming numbers from the 2nd to the 4th; and then, his ammunition being expended, cut his way through, bringing off the wounded, the women, and children. General Elphinstone, the chief military authority, was old and incapable. Days passed, and the insurrection was allowed to gather strength. Lady Sale and her daughter were there. Her narrative, and that of Vincent Eyre (§ 175), give a full account of those painful events.

Apathy.

Sir W. MacNaghten seems to have retained his energy and coolness; but he could not command the army. Negotiations were commenced with the insurgent

chiefs; and at length Sir William was induced to meet Muhammad Akbar Khân, a son of Dôst Muhammad, who had deceitfully offered to put an end to the insurrection, upon being assured of the situation of Vazîr to Shâh Shuja, and receiving an immense pecuniary reward. At the conference the British envoy and Captain Trevor were shot by Akbar Khân; and Captains Colin Mackenzie and Lawrence were made prisoners. Even this did not arouse the military authorities. They agreed to bind the British Government to pay fourteen lakhs as ransom, to evacuate the country, and to restore the deposed king. Against this humiliating agreement Major Eldred Pottinger, acting as political agent, protested, but in vain.

Murder of MacNaghten, 1841.

Deplorable infatuation in Kâbul.

(*n.*) On the morning of the 6th January 1842, the miserable retreat began. Shâh Shuja was left behind. He was for a time acknowledged as king; but in April 1842, he was shot, and his body thrown into a ditch. Incredible disorder, piercing cold, want of every necessary of life, and the constant attacks of the bloodthirsty Afghâns, who hovered around, rendered this march one of continual disaster. They struggled through the tremendous pass of Kûrd Kâbul, and a hot fire was opened on them by Ghiljis on the heights. Lady Sale was wounded by a shot. Three thousand perished in the pass.

Evacuation of Kâbul, Jan. 1842.

Army perishes.

(*o.*) Now Akbar Khân appeared again on the scene. He offered to take charge of all the ladies and married officers, and to escort them safely to Jellâlâbâd. To this at length they were obliged to consent, and thus General Elphinstone, Colonel Shelton, Colonel Palmer, Majors Pottinger and Griffiths, with Lady Sale, Lady MacNaghten, and a few others, became prisoners in the hands of the murderer of Sir W. MacNaghten. Of the remainder, only one, Dr. Brydon, arrived at Jellâlâbâd to tell of the fate of the thousands who had left Kâbul.

Fighting Akbar Khân gets many of the English as prisoners into his hands.

This was a calamity almost without a parallel in British history. There was but one survivor (besides 120 in captivity), out of an army of 15,000 men.

(*p.*) At this time it must be remembered that the veteran General Nott was maintaining his post at Kandahâr, Sir R. Sale at Jellâlâbâd, and that General Pollock was at Peshâwar with an army destined to force its way through the Khyber Pass to rescue Sale and his companions. Akbar Khân was now supreme in Afghânistân. Nott, Sale, and Pollock.

Sir Henry Rawlinson, a man of profound learning and sagacity, added to large experience in Eastern politics, was the British political agent at Kandahâr. Rawlinson.

The sequel of the history must be reserved for another section (§ 116). Relief will come, and retribution follow. Lord Auckland before leaving India made every preparation for the advance of that force, which in the time of his successor retrieved these disasters.

§ 111. The history of the Earl of Auckland's administration would not be complete without some account of the first Chinese war. The cause of it was the smuggling of opium into China by English merchants. First Chinese War, 1840.

The Emperor of China, in order to check the pernicious habit of opium eating and smoking among his subjects, had laid a very heavy duty on this drug. Opium.

In putting down the smuggling of opium into the country, which naturally became frequent, the Chinese authorities committed unwarranted outrages on the ships and subjects of Great Britain.

To avenge these outrages, and to put the Chinese trade on a proper footing, the war was undertaken.

Troops from India, under Sir Hugh Gough, were sent; and, after a series of brilliant exploits, were successful in bringing the Chinese to terms.

By the treaty of Nankin the island of Hong-Kong was made over to England; and four ports were opened to European ships. These were Amoy, Fu-chow, Ningpo, and Shanghai. Hong Kong ceded, 1842.

The "Opium War" was not popular in England.

§ 112. At this time the Râja of Kurnûl, who appears to have been insane, conducted himself in such a manner as to call for the The Râja of Kurnûl removed, 1841.

interference of the British Government. He was removed, to the great relief of his oppressed subjects, and sent to Trichinopoly, where he was in the habit of attending Christian service in the Fort Church, in which he was assassinated by a Muhammadan fanatic.

Lord Auckland's departure, 1842. His character.

§ 113. The Earl of Auckland left India on the 12th March, 1842. His name is inseparably connected with the Afghân expedition; but the impression he left in India was that he possessed high qualities, and might have done much for the country, had his lot not been cast in troublous times, when the fear of Russian aggression hurried England into this ill-fated undertaking.

At the beginning of this war there was, owing in part to his good management, a clear balance in the treasury of £10,000,000 sterling; at the close of it there was a large debt.

The connection of the State with Hindû temples severed.

The connection of the British Government with the Hindû temples and worship was terminated in 1842. The State had acted as trustee for the endowments, and had caused various marks of respect to be paid on Hindû festivals. This was now properly discontinued.

PART XI.—Lord Ellenborough, 1842-1844.

§ 114. Lord Ellenborough arrived in Calcutta, February 28, 1842. He was a statesman of high repute, eloquent, industrious, and energetic; and had been President of the Board of Control.

Summary of Lord Ellenborough's administration.

§ 115. His administration is remarkable for:—

A. the measures adopted to retrieve the national honour in Afghânistân;.

B. the chastisement of the Gwâliôr Durbâr;

C. the conquest of Sind.

XI. Lord Ellenborough, 1842-1844. Afghân disasters retrieved. CH. X. § 116, 119. A.D. 1842.

§ 116. We must now resume (from § 110) the history of the disastrous Afghân expedition. In March 1842, Ghaznî was evacuated by the British troops, almost all of whom perished. This was disgraceful and disheartening. Ghazni evacuated. (Map. p. 50.)

§ 117. Jellâlâbâd held out. The annals of warfare contain few things more glorious. An earthquake added to the miseries of this heroic garrison, throwing down defences that had cost them months of labour. Yet not only did they maintain the fort; but, issuing forth, drove Akbar Khân away, and burnt his camp. The "Illustrious" garrison of Jellâlâbâd.

The heroic Colonel Dennie fell in this sortie. Major Broadfoot and Captain (Sir Henry) Havelock were among the most resolute and energetic of the defenders of the fortress. Dennie. Broadfoot. Havelock.

General Pollock (an old officer of Lord Lake's, who had seen forty years of arduous service), with the relieving army, forced the Khyber Pass on the 5th April, and soon after reached Jellâlâbâd. He baffled the Khyberîs, who were bent on obstructing the march, by crowning the heights on either side with his troops.

§ 118. General Nott meanwhile gallantly held Kandahâr. Throughout the war it is to be noted that the Afghâns never for a moment held their ground in presence of a capable general. Nott in Kandahâr.

A body of troops under General England advanced through the Bolân Pass to Kettah; but were driven back in an attempt to advance to relieve General Nott. A second effort was more successful, and they reached Kandahâr; but the enterprise of their leader had no share in the credit of the expedition.

§ 119. The unfortunate Shâh Shuja was murdered in April, at Kâbul (§ 110). Death of Shâh Shuja.

At this time (April 1842) the Governor-General ordered Pollock and Nott to return direct to India, leaving the national honour unvindicated and the captives unrescued; but these Lord Ellenborough's indecision.

generals, with Major Rawlinson, evaded compliance with his orders; and eventually they were permitted, at their own risk, to take the noble course they did.

Pollock's glorious march.

§ 120. General Pollock now moved on by way of Gundamuck, Mammû Khail, Tezîn, Kûrd-Kâbul, and Bûthâk to Kâbul, where he arrived on the 15th September. Continual attacks of the enemy were repulsed, and the most decided victories atoned for the disgraces of the British arms on this same route a year before.

Nott joins Pollock.

§ 121. General Nott having sent a portion of his troops back to India, by way of Kettah, now marched with the remainder to meet General Pollock at Kâbul. Several smart engagements were fought against Shams-ud-dîn, in which complete and signal success crowned the British arms. Ghaznî was again taken, and its citadel utterly destroyed. The gates of the tomb of Mahmûd of Ghaznî, which had eight centuries before been taken from the temple of Sômnâth, were carried off, and finally deposited among old lumber in the fort at Âgra! Nott joined Pollock at Kâbul, September 5.

(Ch. ii. § 11.)

The proclamation by which the Governor-General (who received the returning army with great pomp at Ferôzpûr) notified the termination of the war was lamentably deficient in good taste. It censured Lord Auckland, and its bombastic reference to the *Sômnâth gates* brought on its author deserved ridicule and rebuke from every quarter. It was dated October 1, 1842.

Recovery of the captives, Sept. 1842.

§ 122. The prisoners in the hands of Akbar Khân were happily and strangely recovered, and joined Sir R. Sale at the Urgandî Pass, on the 20th September.

It had been Akbar Khân's intention to take them to Tûrkistân, and there to sell them for slaves; but their keeper, Saleh Muhammad Khân, was bribed to restore them. Sir R. Sale thus recovered his wife and daughter on his fiftieth birthday.

Istaliff.

Great numbers of the Afghâns had retired to Istaliff. Thither the English troops, under General McCaskill, with an auxiliary force of Kuzzilbash horse under Captain Colin Mackenzie, followed, stormed the fort, and recovered vast quantities of property stolen from the British in Kâbul. The great bazaar at Kâbul was blown up: an act which can hardly be justified.

Settlement of Afghân affairs, 1842.

§ 123. The army was now withdrawn from Afghânistân, and arrived without serious molestation at Ferôzpûr. Dôst Muhammad and the other prisoners were released, and the whole scheme was definitely abandoned. It had cost £15,000,000, and 20,000 lives! The war had been undertaken in defiance of the dictates of prudence. One portion of the transaction is humiliating; but the whole leaves on the mind a vivid impression of the indomitable courage and boundless resources of the great majority of the Englishmen whose names appear in the history.

NOTE.—Dôst Muhammad was reinstated immediately. From 1842-1855 no intercourse existed between him and the Indian Government (§ 149). He died in June 1863, leaving sixteen sons. Of these, Shir Alî, after many struggles, made good his position as Amir (1868).

Troubles in Gwâliôr

§ 124. The troubles at Gwâliôr next demand our attention. Doulat Râo Sindia (ch. v. § 161) died in 1827.

Gwâliôr affairs from 1827 to 1843.

His widow, daughter of the infamous Shîrzî Khân Ghâtgê (ch. v. § 116.), governed as guardian of her adopted son Jankojî till 1833, when the latter assumed the actual management. He died, February 1843, childless. His widow, a girl of thirteen, adopted Bhagîrat Râo, a relative, and a contest for the regency commenced between the Mahârânî and Mamâ Sahêb, an uncle of the deceased chief. The Resident espoused the cause of the latter, whom the Queen notwithstanding expelled.

(See table, ch. v. § 45.)

It was evident that affairs in Gwâliôr were fast tending to a state of such utter disorganisation as

would have disturbed the peace of the surrounding countries. There was in the city an army of 30,000 infantry, and 10,000 horse, with 200 cannon; and the officers were mostly men of European descent. At Lâhôr, too, there was an army of 70,000 Sîkhs, officered by Europeans, anxious for some pretext for crossing the Satlaj. The troubles in the Panjâb had begun. (Ch. xi. § 27, 28.)

Battle of Mahârâjpûr, Dec. 29, 1843. (A few miles from Gwâliôr.)

Map of Central India agency.

(Map of Central India, p. 7.)

The Governor-General rightly judged that prompt interference was necessary. The British troops, accompanied by Lord Ellenborough himself, advanced across the Chambal, and unexpectedly found the Gwâliôr army drawn up at *Mahârâjpûr*. Sir H. Gough, the commander-in-chief, had under him Generals Littler, Valiant, and Dennis. A complete victory was gained, but with severe loss. Sir Hugh says in his despatch, that he had not "done justice to the gallantry of his opponents."

Punniâr, Dec. 1843. (A few miles from Gwâliôr.)

On the same day another victory was gained at *Punniâr* by Major-General Grey. In these two battles, the guns, standards, ammunition, and treasure of the enemy were taken; and there was nothing left the Gwâliôr durbâr but to throw themselves on the clemency of their conquerors. A council of regency was formed, the British contingent was increased, the debts owed by Sindia's Government to the English were paid, and affairs were put on such a footing as to afford a prospect of stability and tranquillity to the Gwâliôr state. (Intro. § 12.)

Settlement of Gwâliôr affairs.

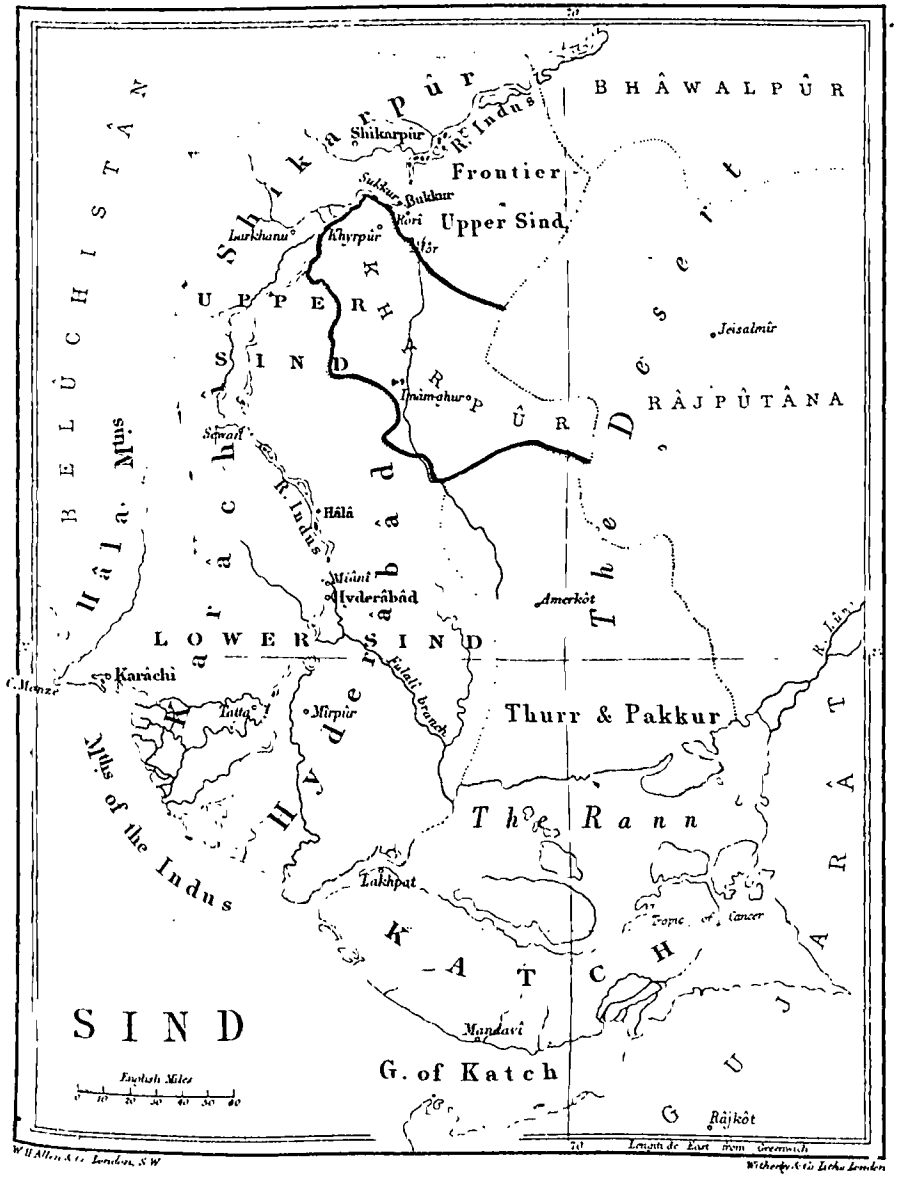
(Comp. § 178.)

Sind: a summary of its history.

Belûchî usurpers, 1786.

§ 125. The conquest of *Sind* (Intro. § 18), and its wise government by its conqueror, Sir Charles Napier, render this period memorable.

In 1786, Sind was seized by a tribe of Belûchîs called Tâlpûrs, whose chief was Mîr Fatih Khân. By him the country was divided between various members of



BHÂWALPÛR
Shikarpûr
Shikarpûr
R. Indus
Frontier
Upper Sind
Sukkur
Bukkur
Rôri
Lârkhanu
Khyrpûr
Jôr
UPPER SIND
KHARPÛR
Jeisalmîr
RÂJPÛTÂNA
The Desert
Imâm-ghur
Sawan
R. Indus
Hâlâ
Miânî
Hyderâbâd
Amerkôt
LOWER SIND
Karâchî
Karâchî
Hâla Mtns
Mtns of the Indus
Tatta
Mîrpûr
Fulalî branch
Thurr & Pakkur
The Rann
Lakhpat
Tropic of Cancer
KATCH
Mandavî
G. of Katch
Râjkôt
GUJARÂT
SIND
English Miles
0 10 20 30 40 50 60
Longitude East from Greenwich
W H Allen & Co London, S W
Witherby & Co Litho London

his family. Thus arose the three states of *Haidarâbâd*, *Khyrpûr*, and *Mirpûr*, in each of which a plurality of Amîrs held sway. These Amîrs—foreigners in the country—dwelt in castles, followed the chase, and treated their subjects much as the Norman barons did their Saxon tenants in the days of King Stephen.

Every attempt to trade with the country was discouraged by the Amîrs, who drove away the chief of the British factory from *Tatta*, where an establishment had existed from 1799. Their unwise management. (The ancient *Pattala*.)

In 1809 a treaty between the Amîrs and Lord Minto had been signed. In 1820 another treaty permitted free intercourse and trade. In 1832 the Indus was thrown open, as the result of Sir Henry Pottinger's mission (§ 101). In 1838 a British Resident was appointed to Haidarâbâd, and the state was thus secured from the attacks of Ranjît Sing. (§ 69.)

Sind had always been a dependency of Kâbul; and Shâh Shuja now made demands of arrears of tribute. This led to further British mediation. The Amîrs were certainly in a great measure dependent on England, and yet were her bitter and jealous enemies. (Compare § 110.)

In fact, the Amîrs, who had some cause to complain, seem to have been thoroughly hostile and treacherous; and an attack upon the Residency, which Sir James Outram defended with consummate bravery, brought matters to an issue. The Sind Amirs.

In October 1842, Sir C. Napier was sent to Sind as commander-in-chief and plenipotentiary; and as he was not a man to be trifled with, and had gone to Sind determined to take possession of the country, he took measures at once to seize and destroy the desert stronghold of Imán-ghur, whither one of the leading Amîrs had fled. This was an exploit of remarkable daring. Imâm-ghur, Jan. 9, 1843.

Sir Charles then advanced to Miânî, a place six miles from Haidarâbâd, where the Sindian army was en- Miani, Feb. 17, 1843.

trenched. A victory was gained by the British, after which six of the Amîrs, three of Khyrpûr and three of Haidarâbâd, surrendered themselves.

Dubba, a village near Haidarâbâd, March 24, 1843.

Shîr Muhammad of Mîrpûr was still in arms; and against him the battle of Haidarâbâd (or *Dubba*) was fought on the 24th March, resulting in a complete victory to the British troops. Mîrpûr was then occupied, and Umerkôt (the birthplace of Akbar) was captured.

(Or *Amarkôt.*)

Amirs sent to Benares.

Sind was now taken possession of; the Amîrs, whose tyrannous assumption had lasted about sixty years, were sent to Benâres with liberal pensions; the Indus was fully opened; and "Little Egypt" began, under the administration of the great Pro-consul, a new career of unexampled prosperity.

Good government of Sir C. Napier.

The feeling, however, then prevailed, and posterity will deliberately confirm the opinion, that the war was unrighteous. It is the one annexation upon which the British nation can look with no satisfaction. Good has, however, arisen out of *manifest evil.*

The Bengâl and Madras sepoys refused to garrison Sind, without extra allowances. This was one indication, amongst many, of the decay of discipline in the "Sepoy army." Sind was thus garrisoned by Bombay troops.

Lord Ellenborough recalled, 1844.

§ 126. The Earl of Ellenborough returned to Calcutta in February 1844, and set himself vigorously to the task of governing the empire, the bounds of which he had so much enlarged; but in a few months he was recalled (and, on the whole, rightly so,) by the Court of Directors, from whom he had differed on many points. This was an extreme exercise of power on the part of the court, and it was censured by the Duke of Wellington and the country generally; but the wisdom of their choice of a successor reconciled the nation to this vigorous act of the twenty-four princes of Leadenhall Street.

Was it right or wrong?

Lord Ellenborough left Calcutta in August 1844.

He was ambitious, fond of display, and self-reliant; but industrious, able, disinterested, a true friend of the army, and a man of undoubted genius. — His character.

To Mr. Wilberforce Bird, his second in Council, many useful measures, such as the extinction of slavery in India, are to be ascribed. — Mr. Wilberforce Bird.

PART XII.—Lord Hardinge, 1844–1847.

§ 127. *Sir Henry* (afterwards Lord) *Hardinge.*

(1.) *Summary.* A. His appointment was made to satisfy (§ 126) all parties. He was a highly distinguished soldier and statesman, and an intimate friend of the Duke of Wellington, under whom he had fought in the Peninsula and at Waterloo, where he lost an arm. — Summary of Lord Hardinge's administration.

B. The great events of his administration are connected with the *first Panjâb war*, and its four battles (fought and won in fifty-four days): *Mûdkî*, *Ferôz-shâh*, *Alîwâl*, and *Sobrâon*.

C. The efforts to put down infanticide, human sacrifices, &c., in Gûmsûr.

§ 128. At this time the Panjâb was in a state of miserable anarchy. (Ch. xi. § 26, 27.) — The first Panjâb war, 1845, 1846.

The Sikhs were the aggressors. They crossed the Satlaj, December 1845. They were repulsed, December 18, at *Mûdkî*, by Lord Gough; again, December 21 and 22, at *Ferôz-shâh*, by Lord Gough and Lord Hardinge, after a very severe contest; again, January 28, 1846, by Sir Harry Smith, at *Alîwâl*; and finally, by Lord Gough, Lord Hardinge, and the whole British forces, at *Sobrâon*, February 10, 1846, after a most gallant and determined resistance. (Ch. xi. § 28–32.) — Four great battles.

§ 129. Dhulip Sing, the youngest putative son of Ranjît Sing, was now recognized as Râja of the Panjâb; the Doâb between the Bîâs and the Satlaj (the Jullindhur Doâb) was annexed to the British empire; and an indemnity for the expenses of this unprovoked war was paid by the Sikhs. (Ch. x. § 33.) — Treaty of 1846.

Kashmîr.

§ 130. Kashmîr was then made over to Golâb Sing, a Râjpût, the most prominent Sîkh leader, who paid £1,000,000 of the tribute. This was on many accounts a wise arrangement. His son now rules over that province in peace; and measures for the improvement of the country have been adopted at the suggestion of the British Government, and more especially of the late Sir H. Lawrence. Still its management is hardly satisfactory.

Honours.

§ 131. Sir Henry Hardinge and Sir Hugh Gough were both raised to the peerage for their gallant exploits. (Ch. xi. § 34.)

It seemed as if wars must now cease in the Indian possessions of Great Britain. Between February 1843 and February 1846, eight great battles had been fought, in which the three armies of Sind, Gwâliôr, and the Panjâb, numbering 120,000 men, had been annihilated. For a few years after this, India in fact enjoyed an eventful peace, the fruit of war. A large reduction in the army was now made.

Lord Hardinge's liberal policy.

§ 132. Lord Hardinge, while averse to any undue interference with the prejudices of the people of India, promoted education; and, among other wise enactments, forbade the prosecution of Government works on the Sunday. He also gave his assistance to the project for the Ganges canal, and to the plan for the construction of railways in India. § 142–146.

Inhuman customs put down.

(Comp. Introd. § 13.)

§ 133. His administration was happily marked by vigorous, and ultimately successful, attempts more completely to put down infanticide, Satî, and human sacrifices. These horrible crimes were still committed in many parts of India; and especially in Gûmsûr and in some other parts of Orissa, and in Gondwâna, among the Khonds and other hill-tribes, the most revolting cruelties were often perpetrated. The chief of these was called the Meriah sacrifice. The Khonds, according

Or *Kandhs*.

to Captain Macpherson's report, were in the habit of sacrificing as many as twenty-five human victims at one festival. These were kidnapped, or bought, and were tortured, with every refinement of cruelty, before being actually sacrificed.

This has now been effectually put down, chiefly by the efforts of those laborious, earnest men, Captain S. C. Macpherson, Colonel Campbell, and their assistants.

Encouragement to trade.

§ 134. Free-trade was promoted; duties paid for the introduction of merchandise into some of the large towns, such as Lûdiâna, Umbâla, and Sûrat, were abolished; and the real prosperity of the country was promoted by this noble ruler, who was at once a wise and beneficent administrator and a brave and determined warrior.

Among the men he selected for high office were Sir H. Elliot, Sir John Lawrence, and Sir Patrick Grant.

Ancient buildings.

§ 135. The Tâj Mahâl at Âgra, and other architectural remains, were at this time repaired and restored; and measures adopted to check the rash and careless habits by which the many interesting monuments of past times were being destroyed in various parts of the land.

The Rûrkî College.

§ 136. The Engineering College at Rûrkî, planned by the benevolent and laborious Lieutenant-Governor of the North-West Provinces, Mr. Thomason, was sanctioned and promoted by Lord Hardinge.

Departure of Lord Hardinge.

Scarcely any Governor-General has ever gained so much influence over the minds of men in India as this admirable man. He left Calcutta early in 1848, after a government of forty-two months' duration.

March 15.

PART XIII.—Earl of Dalhousie, 1848–1856.

§ 137. The Earl of Dalhousie was the thirteenth Governor-General.

Summary of Lord Dalhousie's administration.

(1.) *Summary.* He arrived in Calcutta early in 1848, and departed early in 1856. He died soon after his return, worn out with his Indian work. He assumed the supreme power in India in his thirty-sixth year. He may be called the last of the *Company's* Governors-General.

(2.) The first great event of this administration was the *second Panjâb war*, with its *two battles* and *one siege :*

(Ch. xi. § 40.)

Chillianwallah	January 13, 1849.
Gujarât	February 21, 1849.
Mûltân, taken	January 21, 1849.

(3.) The commencement of railways and electric telegraphs in India was owing to Lord Dalhousie's energetic influence.

(4.) The "*Lex loci*" was passed in 1851.

(5.) The *Second Birmese war.* Pegu annexed (1852–3).

(6.) Peace with Dôst Muhammad (1855).

(7.) Annexation of Oudh (1856).

(§ 44.) (8.) Tanjore (1856) and *Nâgpur* lapsed for want of heirs (1853).

(9.) Compare also Ch. iii. § 16 (13); and Ch. v. § 164.

His plans and policy.

§ 138. Lord Dalhousie came out as a "peace Governor;" as many before him had done, whom circumstances hurried into war. When war broke out a second time in the Panjâb, the Governor-General in Calcutta said:—"I have wished for peace; I have longed for it; I have striven for it. But, if the enemies of India desire war, war they shall have; and, on my word, they shall have it with a vengeance."

Lord Dalhousie's declaration.

The "Lex loci." (Comp. § 94.)

In October 1849 a modified form of trial by jury was introduced. A law, called the "Lex loci," was passed, ordaining that no penal consequences should attend the change of religion by any man.

§ 139. A. The second Panjâb war began with the outbreak in Mûltân (ch. xi. § 35–43), under Mûlrâj. (April 1848.) The second Panjâb war, 1848.

Messrs. Agnew and Anderson were basely murdered.

B. A conspiracy was formed in Lâhôr at the same time to massacre all the British officers in the Panjâb, and to make a complete revolution in the province. Mûltân.

C. Lieutenant Edwardes (afterwards Sir Herbert Edwardes), General Sampson Whish, Lord Gough, and General Gilbert are the names that most attract our attention in this short but brilliant war. Edwardes, Whish, Gough, and Gilbert.

D. The result was the annexation of the Panjâb, which was placed under a Board of Commissioners, of whom Sir Henry Lawrence was president, Sir John Lawrence was second, while Mr. Mansel and Sir R. Montgomery were the other members. Under these, fifty-six gentlemen were employed as assistants. A general disarming of the people from the Biâs to the Satlaj now took place, when 120,000 weapons were surrendered. The result was a decrease of crime throughout the whole province. The annexation of the Panjâb.

Lord Dalhousie was made a Marquess.

Lord Gough, beloved by the army, left India in May 1849.

Sir C. Napier, who was of a fiery temper and unyielding disposition, was Commander-in-Chief in India, after the departure of Lord Gough. There was something approaching to a mutiny among the sepoys in the Panjâb. On this occasion Sir C. Napier exceeded his powers in his attempt to satisfy the discontented sepoys; and being rebuked by Lord Dalhousie, resigned in 1850. Sir C. Napier's resignation, 1850.

The Duke of Wellington decided that the Governor-General was right.

§ 140. The second Birmese war, which broke out after India had enjoyed the blessings of peace for three years, ended in the annexation of Pegu. It arose from the oppression of British subjects by the King of Âva and his officials. The arrogance of the Birmese seems to have suffered no abatement by the first war, though its result was so disastrous to them. However, Commodore Lambert by sea, and General Godwin by land, soon brought the Birmese to their senses. In annexing Pegu (December 21, 1852), by which the kingdom of Birma was deprived of the whole of its seaboard, Lord Dalhousie, who had entered upon the war with the sincerest reluctance, gave the King of Âva a severe The second Birmese war, 1852.

(Comp. § 79.)

lesson; secured a rich province for his country; and threw open a noble river to the trade of the world. Pegu had not been in the hands of these Birma sovereigns more than about a century. The war was concluded June 30, 1853, after lasting eighteen months, and costing a little less than two millions sterling. The marvellous energy, skill, and forethought, with which Lord Dalhousie himself arranged every detail of the expedition, astonished all India.

(§ 79.)

NOTE.—Rangoon, the capital of Pegu, is on one of the branches of the Irawâdy, called the Syrian river. It is now a place of extensive trade. (Comp. § 79.)

Colonel (Sir Arthur) Phayre distinguished himself by his successful administration of the new Province.

Changes in the Panjâb, 1853.

§ 141. In 1853, the Panjâb Board of Commissioners was abolished, and Sir John Lawrence was made Chief Commissioner, while Sir Henry became agent to the Governor-General at Âjmîr. Infanticide was suppressed by the co-operation of the Panjâb nobles themselves.

(Afterwards distinguished in Abyssinia, and now Lord Napier of Magdâla.)

The most magnificent system of roads and canals was planned and commenced under Colonel (Sir R.) Napier. Roads extending for 2,200 miles, and a grand canal 465 miles in length, will perpetuate the renown of Sir R. Napier and Lord Dalhousie.

Deaths in 1853. (Ch. xi. § 43.)

The same year Sir Walter Gilbert (the "flying General" of the Panjâb), and Sir Charles Napier (who assumed the command of the Indian army in May 1846) died; Colonel Mackeson, Commissioner of Peshâwar, was stabbed by an Afghân fanatic; and Mr. Thomason, Lieutenant-Governor of Âgra, just appointed Governor of Madras, was taken away in his fiftieth year.

Railways, 1853.

§ 142. The year 1853 saw the opening of the first Indian railway, from Bombay to Tanna. To Mr. (afterwards Sir Macdonald) Stephenson, who ably carried

out Lord Dalhousie's plans, India is chiefly indebted for the introduction of railways. Their extension since that time has been rapid and most beneficial.

There are now 5,051 miles of railway in India, upon which a sum of £70,000,000 has been expended.

Telegraphs.

§ 143. Telegraphic communication, under the energetic superintendence of Dr. O'Shaughnessey (now Sir William O'Shaughnessey Brooke), began to extend itself, with extraordinary rapidity, over the length and breadth of the land.

Nâgpûr affairs. Dec. 11, 1853.

§ 144. In December 1853, the Râja of Nâgpûr died without issue, and having adopted no heir. (Ch. v. § 159.) Lord Dalhousie, as lord paramount, annexed this state, as having lapsed to the power which reorganized it in 1818.

(Comp. § 187.)

'This "annexation policy" has been fiercely condemned, and as warmly defended. It is one of the distinguishing characteristics of Lord Dalhousie's brilliant administration.

The Sattâra case.

It is convenient to notice here the less important annexation of the Sattâra territory in 1849. The Râja died without an heir in 1848. (Ch. v. § 164.) Sir G. Clerk, Governor of Bombay, strongly advocated the placing of his adopted son on the throne. His successor, Lord Falkland, took a contrary view. Sir John Malcolm had held that adoptions should be sanctioned. Lord Dalhousie decided that the adoption should entitle the person adopted to succeed to the personal property, but not to the political dignity. The Court of Directors then laid down this general principle:—

Diversity of opinion.

Lord Dalhousie's decision.

The Directors lay down the general principle.

"*By the general law and custom of India, a dependent principality like that of Sattâra, cannot pass to an adopted heir, without the consent of the paramount power. We are under no pledge, direct or constructive, to give such consent, and the general interests committed to our charge are best consulted by withholding it.*" (January 24, 1849.) (Comp. § 187.)

Renewal of the Charter, 1853. (§ 103.)

§ 145. The renewal of the Company's Charter, for the last time, occupied the attention of the Imperial Parliament during several months of 1853.

Changes.

The Court of Directors was reduced from twenty-four to eighteen; six of these were to be appointed by the Crown; civil appointments were thrown open to competition; the Macaulay code was introduced; Bengâl was put under a Lieutenant-Governor; the Company's Sadder Courts were blended with Her Majesty's Supreme Courts at the presidency towns; and a comprehensive system of State education for India was sanctioned. The despatch in which the present system of education was announced has been called "the intellectual charter of India."

The Ganges Canal, 1854.

§ **146.** Early in 1854, Colonel Cautley's great Ganges Canal, 500 miles long (which had been commenced in Lord Auckland's time), was opened with great ceremony; and its author left India with unanimous applause.

Jhânsi and Kerowli, 1854. (Koráoli.)

§ **147.** The Râja of Jhânsî and the chief of Kerowlî both died childless in 1854. The dominions of the former were "annexed;" we shall see more of Jhânsî affairs. (§ 181.) Those of the latter were handed over to Madden Pâl, a new relative of the late chief, by whom it is still well governed. The Mahârâja has been appointed Grand Commander of the Star of India. (Introd. § 36.)

The Nuwâb of the Karnatic, 1854.

The titular Nuwâb of the Karnatic died in 1853. His uncle, Azim Jâh, claimed to succeed him. This was disallowed; but suitable provision was made for the latter, as the representative of the family. (Comp. § 44.)

The ex-Peishwâ.

[For the conditional annexation of Berâr, see Chap. iii. § 16 (12).]
The death of Bâjî Rao, the ex-Peshwâ, took place in 1853. (Ch. v. § 158.)

Local officers.

§ **148.** Sir F. Halliday was appointed first Lieutenant-Governor of Bengâl; and Lord Harris succeeded Sir H. Pottinger as Governor of Madras. Colonel (Sir James) Outram succeeded Colonel (Sir William) Sleeman as Resident of Oudh.

Events of 1855.

§ **149.** In 1855, a treaty was made with the restored Dôst Muhammad; a loan for public works was opened; and the crime of torturing people to extract evidence, or to compel payment of arrears of taxes—a crime

Torture.

often committed by native officers—was put an end to. Of this last measure, Sir J. Lawrence in the Panjâb, and Lord Harris in Madras, were the most zealous pro-

The Santâl insurrection.

moters. An outbreak of the Santâls among the hill ranges of Râjmahâl (Introd. § 33) was put down only by the proclamation of martial law in the disturbed districts, and the vigorous measures of General Lloyd. This district is now a non-regulation commissionership.

The Santâls.

The Santâls are an aboriginal race, inhabiting the western frontier of Bengâl from near the sea to the hills of Bhagulpûr, and numbering about *two millions*.

The annexation of Oudh. (Ch. x. § 32; iii. § 17.)

§ **150.** The annexation of Oudh is the greatest event of this period. Oudh, by the treaty of 1801,

was under the especial guardianship of the British power. It had been shamefully ill-governed. Intervention was a duty of common humanity. Colonel Sleeman urged it, and Lord Dalhousie, with the unanimous concurrence of his council, advised it. The Home Government, going beyond the Indian authorities, commanded annexation; and Vajíd Alí ceased to reign. The king wept and put his turban into Colonel Outram's hands, but would sign no treaty. He receives £120,000 sterling a year. Oudh will require another reference before we close this history. Feb. 7, 1856. (§ 164, 174, 184.)

§ 151. Lord Dalhousie left Calcutta, 6th March 1856, utterly broken down by eight years of unspeakable anxieties and toils. He very closely resembled, but in many points excelled, his great predecessor, the Marquis of Wellesley, who had governed and mightily extended the British dominions in India fifty years before. Close of Lord Dalhousie's administration, 1856.

Every part of the empire felt his influence. The Panjáb, Pegu, and Oudh were added to the British dominions. A vigorous and beneficial impulse was given to every department. Every means of improving India, and of communicating to her all the advantages of Western civilisation, was adopted.

A pension of £5,000 a year was voted to him.

The renown of James Andrew Ramsay, Marquis of Dalhousie, who died 19th December 1860, will never perish. Death in 1860.

PART XIV.—The Administration of Lord Canning, 1856–1861.

§ 152. Lord Canning, the fourteenth Governor-General, and the first Viceroy of British India, succeeded on the 29th February 1856. He was a scholar, Lord Canning.

a statesman of experience, and a man of wonderful coolness, patience, and firmness.

His administration may almost be said to begin and end with the "Sepoy war."

Intense Anglican feeling.

§ 153. Lord Dalhousie's influence had stirred up throughout India an intense desire for progress and reform. The tendency was undoubtedly to throw everything into an English shape, and to urge on a civilisation which may be called "epidemic" rather than "endemic;" rather forced upon the country from without, than arising from the development of higher principles within the minds and hearts of the people of India themselves.

Reforms in the Bengâl army, 1856.

§ 154. An important though unpopular reform among the high-caste soldiers of Bengâl was carried out in 1856; all sepoys enrolled in future were to be enlisted for general service, as soldiers should be.

The Persian war, 1856–1857.

§ 155. The Persian war began in November 1856, and was ended by a treaty signed in Paris in March 1857. It was caused by the insolent behaviour of the Persian Court, which had never forgiven the English for hindering their acquisition of Herât [§ 110 (*g*).]

The island of Karrack was taken (December 4, 1856). An engagement was fought at Bushair; and, a few days after, Bushair, the object of the expedition, surrendered. The loss of life was very trifling.

(*Bushire.*)

Treaty with Dôst Muhammad.

§ 156. An additional treaty was now signed by the old opponent of England, Dôst Muhammad, by which he bound himself to aid the British against Persia, by maintaining an army of 18,000 men, the British Government paying him £120,000 per annum to maintain this army. Sir J. Lawrence and Major Edwardes were the

main authors of this beneficial arrangement, which had a great effect in disposing the Shâh of Persia to retire from the contest.

§ 157. The gallant Sir James Outram, the Bayard of India, had now joined the Persian expedition as its commander-in-chief. On the 5th February he drove the enemy from their entrenchments at Barasjûn (forty-six miles from Bushair), and on the 7th the battle of Kûshâb was fought, in which the Persian army was well-nigh annihilated. Sir James Outram in Persia.

Muhamrah, commanding the passage of the Euphrates and the water approach to Ispahân, was taken on the 26th with scarcely any loss. This ended the war; a truce was granted to the prayer of the Persians, and plenipotentiaries signed a peace in Paris, March 4. Peace with Persia. March 4, 1857.

The Persians made amends for the slights they had put upon the British power, and formally renounced all claim upon Herât and Afghânistân.

§ 158. Disturbances now took place in China. The mandarins of Canton were the aggressors, and the Chinese Governor Yeh offered a reward for the head of every Englishman. After some severe reprisals on the English part, and two bombardments of Canton, Lord Elgin was sent on a special mission to Pekin. China, 1857. (§ 111.)

Hearing the news of the troubles in India, he brought up to Calcutta all he could spare of his troops. On his arrival at Canton, in conjunction with the French plenipotentiary, Baron Gros, he ordered an attack on that city. Yeh was taken prisoner and sent to Calcutta, where he died. The expedition then proceeded to Shanghai; and was nearing Pekin, when the childish emperor agreed to treaties with England, France, America, and Russia, by which all commercial privileges were conceded to those powers. Yeh. Commercial treaty with China.

§ 159. Now broke out the *Sepoy Mutiny*. We cannot give its full history; but will sketch an outline, which the student must fill in for himself. The Sepoy Mutiny, 1857.

The Bengâl native army had been in an unsatisfactory state for some time. Sir C. Napier had given the warning that the Bengâl sepoys were not to be trusted.

Causes of the mutiny.

The want of intercourse and sympathy with their men on the part of the European officers; the taking away of authority from the officers commanding regiments; the issue of the Afghân war; a want of firmness in the attitude of the Government towards its sepoy army; a dread of the violent introduction of Christianity; and of changes affecting their caste and customs; and the annexation of Oudh, from which a great majority of the sepoys came; all these, and many more reasons, having weight with none but uninstructed minds, rendered the sepoys ready for revolt.

It was also the centenary of Plassey. A hundred years had been assigned as the duration of the British Râj, and the hundredth year had come.

The "greased cartridges."

§ 160. Early in 1857 the new Enfield rifles were introduced into the Indian army; and the absurd report was spread abroad that the cartridges issued had been smeared with the fat of pigs and of cows, in order that Mussulmân and Hindû alike might be defiled.

§ 161. The mutiny began at Berhâmpûr, in the 19th Regiment, which was disbanded in March 1857.

The first outbreaks. March 1857. Mangal Pândî.

Soon after occurred the disgraceful circumstance which gave a name to the mutineers.

A young sepoy called Mangal Pândî, of the 34th Regiment, maddened with *bhang*, rushed out of his hut, called upon his comrades to unite in defence of their religion, and levelled his piece at the serjeant-major. The piece missed fire, but not one soldier interfered to hinder his mad attempt. He then attacked his adjutant and another officer. He at last aimed at General Hearsay; but, changing his purpose, turned his weapon

against himself. He fell wounded, and ten days after was hung, with a Jemadâr who had stood by without doing his duty.

Mutineers after this were generally called *Pandis*. Pandis.

§ 162. Fakîrs and other emissaries were now in every village and bazaar, from the slopes of the Himâlayas to Cape Comorin, spreading the most atrocious falsehoods, uttering the wildest prophecies of the downfall of British power, and striving to excite a rebellion. Small flat cakes of flour and water, called *chappatties*, were sent from village to village, and were passed on by the villagers, who only learnt from this token that some great struggle was impending. The English in India were seated over a mine ready to explode. Emissaries of rebellion. Chappatties.

§ 163. Meanwhile the adopted son of the late Peshwâ, who lived at Bhîtûr, near Khânpûr (ch. v. § 158), was the mainspring of disaffection. His secretary, Azîmulla-Khân, a plausible miscreant, had been sent to England as the agent of Dhundu Pant, and had been treated there with a foolish consideration, to which he had no right whatever. He and his master now passed hither and thither, lying and plotting. The old King of Delhi and his sons were ready for anything that might give them a chance of restoring the Mogul dominion; forgetting that they owed their very existence to the English, who had saved them from the Mahratta oppressor in 1803. Nânâ Dhundu Pant. Ingratitude of the Mogul. (Ch. iii. § 25.)

§ 164. The ex-King of Oudh, in Calcutta, was in the conspiracy. Mân Sing, chief of the Pûrbias, from which tribe very many of the sepoys came; and the members of the families of the dispossessed Mahratta chiefs of Nâgpûr and Satârâ, were also in the secret; but the British Government was in profound ignorance of the The conspirators. (§ 150.) (Introd. § 28.)

extent and nature of the danger; and warnings were disregarded.

The saviours of the Anglo-Indian empire.

Yet never were more resolute and able men in India than those who saved the British Indian empire in that eventful crisis. Lord Canning, Sir H. Lawrence in Lucknow, Sir John Lawrence at Lâhôr, and Lord Elphinstone in Bombay, are to be added to an illustrious band of warriors, whose deeds surpass anything of the kind in ancient or modern history.

The outbreak at Mirut, May 10, 1857. (About 30 miles N.E. from Delhi.)

§ 165. Incendiary fires at the various cantonments, insolence of demeanour, and murmurs against the officers, were now constant; but the 10th May witnessed the first great outbreak of the rebellion, at Mîrut. At that station ninety-five troopers of the 3rd Light Cavalry had refused to use the cartridges issued; though every assurance was given to the men that these cartridges had been prepared in the same way as those they had always used. These mutineers were sentenced to imprisonment for various terms. To rescue them, the whole of the natives in Mîrut rose, massacred all they found of European parentage of every class and age, burnt the station, and marched off to Delhi. No adequate effort to check them was made by the old general in command.

The massacre at Delhi, May 11, 1857.

§ 166. On the 11th of May the same horrible scenes were enacted in Delhi. The commissioner, Mr. Fraser; the captain of the king's guard, Captain Douglas; Mr. Jennings, the Residency chaplain; and his daughter; were murdered in the palace, in the sight of the king; and, almost certainly, with his sanction.

Yet this scene of carnage and sickening treachery is connected with one of the grandest feats of heroism that history records.

When the tidings of the Mîrut massacre reached Delhi, nine officers, commissioned and non-commissioned, managed to close the gates of the arsenal, the greatest in the north-west of India. They then made some hasty preparations for defence, and laid a train of powder from the magazine to some distance. Alone, those heroes defended their post, till swarms of assailants were, by means of scaling-ladders, surmounting the walls. Then the train was fired, and the little band of devoted men made their way through a sally-port on the river face, covered with wounds. They were Lieutenants Willoughby, Raynor, and Forrest; Conductors Shaw, Buckley, and Scully; Sub-Conductor Crow; Sergeants Edwards and Stewart. Scully fired the train, and was seen no more. Willoughby, their young leader, scorched and crippled, died of his wounds at Mîrut.

Willoughby and his heroic comrades.

The heroes of the Delhi arsenal.

From the city, now a pandemonium, many Europeans escaped; but what pen can describe the miseries of the fugitives, or the calmness and courage with which they were borne!

§ 167. The occupation of the Mogul capital by the rebels was the signal for risings and massacres in almost every station in Bengâl and the north-west. The Mîrut massacre was premature. What would have been the result if this gigantic plot had fully ripened!

General insurrections, May 1857.

Ferôzpûr, Bareilly, Morâdâbâd, Shâhjehânpûr, Khânpûr, Jhânsî, Benâres, Allâhâbâd, Hansi, Hissar, Fatihghur, Dînapûr, Jullindhur, and many other places, furnished sad tales of perfidy and cruelty.

§ 168. At Lâhôr, Messrs. Montgomery, M'Leod, and Brigadier Corbett disarmed the sepoys, whose traitorous inclinations were evident, in a prompt and masterly style.

Lâhôr.

The Panjâb saved.

At Peshâwar, Reid, Cotton, Chamberlain, Nicholson, and Edwardes, communicating with Sir John Lawrence by telegraph, disarmed the native troops; and hung a few native officers, traitors caught in the act. These measures saved the Panjâb.

The 55th N.C. at Murdân mutinied. Swift, inexorable, awful punishment followed.

Sir John Lawrence comes to the rescue. (Ch. xi. § 8.)

§ 169. Sir John Lawrence had now leisure to come to the rescue of the Cis-Satlaj stations: to save the empire.

Fidelity of the Cis-Satlaj protected States.

The Sîkh chiefs, British feudatories, stood nobly and loyally by the paramount power. The ruler of Kashmîr, the Râjas of Jhînd, Kapurthala, and Pattiâla; the old Sirdârs, Têj Sing, Shamshîr Sing, Jouâhîr Sing, and many others, raised Sîkh troops, and armed their retainers to aid their former foes. Thus fresh relays of troops were constantly sent from the Panjâb to the scene of action.

Delhi.

§ 170. Thither we must now return. "On to Delhi" was the watchword. To Delhi each regiment, as it mutinied, marched off to swell the army that was to restore the Empire of the Mogul. On the other hand, every detachment of British troops and allies was destined to the service of wresting from the hands of the rebels a place whose very name was strength to them.

Lieutenant de Kantzow.

At Mynpûrî, a young lieutenant, called De Kantzow, with wonderful "courage, patience, good judgment, and temper," almost alone, withstood the roaring tide of mutiny. Not a rupee was taken from the treasury, not a life was lost. And this was only one among many instances of heroic firmness.

Mr. Colvin.

§ 171. Mr. Colvin, the Lieutenant-Governor of Âgra, failed in energy; and his proclamation, offering immu-

nity to all who would give up their arms, and go quietly home, was deservedly ridiculed as an attempt to "wash out with rose-water the reek of a blood-stained rebellion." It was repudiated at once by Lord Canning.

Sterner, wiser men were soon on the spot.

The Khânpûr massacre, June 1857.

§ 172. The memories of Khânpûr are among the saddest in the history of British India. There, under Sir Hugh Wheeler, aided by Captain Moore, the garrison held out gallantly for three weeks (June 6th to 27th), in wretched buildings, suffering every privation, and surrounded by a vast multitude of savage enemies. They were then enveigled by the miscreants *Dhundu* and *Azîm-ulla* into a surrender. Numbers were shot in the boats which were, as they imagined, to carry them to Allâhâbâd; and the others, women and children, were cut to pieces in a small room, and their bodies, still quivering with life, thrown into a well.

Lieutenants Mowbray, Thompson and Delafosse, with a band of thirteen privates, after a heroic defence, escaped.

Thus, while many and terrible were the scenes of treacherous carnage during these mutinies, Khânpûr and Delhi will remain associated in English minds with *the Black Hole, Patna, Seringapatam,* and *Vellore,* as having been rendered especially infamous by the atrocities there perpetrated.

Circumstances like these account for, while they cannot justify, the indiscriminate slaughter that too often disgraced the British soldiers at this maddening crisis.

Neill and Havelock.

§ 173. Meanwhile two of the most distinguished heroes of the war were on their way to the fatal spot. These were Lieutenant-Colonel James Neill and Sir Henry Havelock. Neill, when the station-master at Howrah would have started the train without some of

his soldiers, simply put him under arrest till all had arrived. British troops began to pour into Benâres, and were passed on to the upper provinces. On 17th June Sir P. Grant, from Madras, took the place of the Commander-in-Chief, General Anson, who had died of cholera at Kurnâl on the 27th of May.

Mr. Carre Tucker and Mr. Gubbins in Benâres.

Benâres was kept safe, under incredible difficulties, by Mr. Carre Tucker, the commissioner, and Mr. Frederick Gubbins, the sessions judge, aided by Sûrat Sing, a loyal State prisoner, Râo Nârâin Sing, the Râja of Benâres, and a few others.

On the last day of June Havelock reached Allâhâbâd, and Neill left for Khânpûr.

Khânpûr.

The battle of Khânpûr was fought on the 16th of July. The Bîtûr troops were completely routed. Major Renaud and Captain Beatson, two noble soldiers, died about this time of wounds and cholera.

On the 25th July Havelock marched into Oudh; and his subordinate Neill was at the same time inflicting condign punishment on the butchers of Khânpûr.

Sir H. Lawrence in Lucknow.

§ 174. In Lucknow, which he had held (aided by Banks, Inglis, and Fulton), Sir H. Lawrence was killed, on the 2nd July, by the bursting of a shell. In him England lost one of her best, most generous, and heroic men. The defence was maintained by the survivors with equal spirit. It was not till he had three times crossed the Ganges, that Havelock (on the 25th September), after innumerable victories, made his way into Lucknow. The chivalrous Sir James Outram was now in command; but he waived his right, and entered the city as a subordinate of Havelock, from whom he would not take the glory of effecting the relief of the city, for which he had undergone so much.

Havelock relieves it.

Sir James Outram.

Death of Neill.

Brigadier-General Neill was killed in the final ad-

vance. He was in his forty-eighth year, when his brilliant career thus terminated.

Outram was now master of Lucknow, but he could do nothing more than hold the place.

The heroic defence of Arrah.

(Dinapûr is on the S. bank of the Ganges, about 10 miles W. of Patna.) (*Arrah* is 35 miles W. from Patna.)

§ 175. The defence of Arrah must not be forgotten. This place is on the west of the Sône, and a little to the S.W. of *Dinapûr*, where three native regiments had mutinied. For a whole week *Arrah* was kept by two gentlemen of the names of Wake and Boyle, with a small band of Sîkh and English refugees, against upwards of 3,000 rebels. Their fortress was an open bungalow. On the 2nd August Major Vincent Eyre gained the brilliant victory of Bîbîgung; which was followed up by other successes, by which the rebel Koer Sing was driven into the jungles, and that part of the country cleared of rebels.

Eyre.

Siege of Delhi.

§ 176. But the great interest of the rebellion centres in Delhi. We must pass from the banks of the Gûmtî to those of the Jamna. On the 8th June, Sir H. Barnard, after a severe action, took possession of the heights near Delhi, and the siege began. The besieged had everything in their favour. The city, thoroughly fortified, was seven miles in circumference. Its defenders were almost countless, and they had an inexhaustible supply of heavy guns and ammunition. The Jamna flowed beneath its eastern wall, and the well-defended bridge over it freely admitted reinforcements and supplies.

The besiegers (more besieged than besieging) were few, sickly, overworked; many of them raw recruits; and their guns did not suffice even to check the enemy's fire. We cannot give the details of those patient, prudent, and valiant operations, which ended in the capture of Delhi on the 20th of September 1857.

Taken Sept. 20, 1857.

Battle of 23rd June.

There was a great struggle on the centenary of Plassey, 23rd June; but the mutineers were triumphantly repulsed. The prophecy had indeed been everywhere confidently uttered that the hundredth year from Plassey, the year 1857, would see the extinction of the British Râj. This was said to be founded upon some astrological calculations.

Heroes of Delhi.

Sir H. Barnard died of cholera on 4th July, and was succeeded by General Archdale. Wilson, Baird Smith, Hodson of the Guides, Nicholson, and Hope Grant, among a multitude of others, distinguished themselves.

Muhammad Bahâdar Shâh's sons shot. (Ch. iii. § 25.)

The King of Delhi was taken prisoner by Hodson, and his two sons and grandson shot.

Other places. Sind, Bombay, and Haidarâbâd.

§ 177. The rebellion was now really put down. Sind was kept quiet by Sir Bartle Frere and General Jacob. Lord Elphinstone was equal to the emergency in Bombay. The able and patriotic Sir Salar Jung maintained tranquillity in the Nizâm's dominions. It was well that the Haidarâbâd force and the contingent were under such men as General Coffin and Colonel Hill.

Indôr. Oct. 1857.

The Indôr mutineers were disposed of by Brigadier Greathed's flying column.

Ghûrkas.

Nîpalese troops under Sir Jung Bahâdar did good service.

Lord Clyde's relief of Lucknow. April, 1858.

§ 178. The relief of Lucknow and the rescue of the garrison by Sir Colin Campbell (afterwards Lord Clyde), was another great event.

Death of Havelock, Nov. 25, 1857.

Sir H. Havelock died on the 25th November, and his name will live as a man of the purest and bravest type.

Gwâliôr.

The Gwâliôr contingent mutinied in the middle of October, dethroning their Râja; but their triumph was

June 1858.

short (§ 181.)

Whitlock's Madras column in Bandêlkhand annihilated the forces of the Râja of Banda. Feb. 1858.

Cotton and Edwardes guarded the north-west frontier.

§ 179. The murderers of English men and women met on all sides with their just punishment, swiftly and inexorably inflicted. Punishment of murderers.

Muhammad Bahâdar Shâh, the last Mogul, was brought to trial (January 27 to March 9). He was skilfully defended; but found guilty of murder, treason, and arson, and was sentenced to transportation for life to Birma. His favourite wife, Zînat Mahâl, and his youngest son, Jamma Bakht, whom he had designed to succeed him, accompanied him. (Comp. p. 141.) Trial of the last Mogul emperor. Condemnation, deportation, and death, 1858.

In Maulmain he died.

§ 180. Lord Canning was at the time blamed much for his statesman-like and Christian "clemency;" but justice was done, while vengeance was disclaimed. Lucknow was finally taken, and the re-conquest of Oudh completed in March. Lord Canning's clemency.

Khân Bahâdar of Bareilly, the Mûlvi of Faizâbâd, the Begum of Oudh, Prince Ferôz Shâh of Delhi, and the infamous Nânâ of Bîtûr, were still in arms in Rohilkhand. Bareilly was taken and Rohilkhand cleared in May. The rebel leaders, however, escaped for the time. The rebel leaders.

§ 181. Sir Hugh Rose, in Central India, made one triumphant, and scarcely paralleled march, from Bombay to Indôr, Sâgar, Jhânsî, Kalpî, and at last to Gwâliôr. His chief opponent was Tantia Tôpî, a Mahratta Brahman, a relative of the Nânâ, who was, in fact, a Pindâri leader, ruthless and desperate. Kalpî, the great arsenal of the rebels, was stormed on the 25th May. Sir Hugh Rose. Jan. 1858. Kalpî.

Jhânsi. April 1858.

The strong fortress of Jhânsî, defended by its heroic but cruel Rânî, Lakshmî Bâî, was taken; and she escaped, to fall in battle at the siege of Gwâliôr.

Gwâliôr. (See table, ch. v. § 45.)

Gwâliôr was taken, and the noble young Mâhârâja restored, in the middle of June 1858.

Tantia Tôpî. (Ch. xii. § 60.)

Tantia Tôpî, the skilful but cruel leader, was taken by Major (now Sir Richard) Meade, tried, and hanged in April 1859, as his share in the Khânpûr massacres deserved. Mân Sing had surrendered himself some days before; and he gave the information which led to the capture of this great criminal, near Parone.

The capture of Tantia Tôpî seemed to extinguish the last spark of the rebellion.

The Nânâ.

The Nânâ perished, it is supposed, in the Nîpal jungles. The Begum escaped to Katmandû.

Peel and Venables.

§ 182. Among others, Sir W. Peel, commander of a naval brigade, and Mr. Venables, of Azimgurh, an indigo planter, lost their lives, after covering themselves with glory.

The three great military achievements.

§ 183. The storming of Delhi, the final capture of Lucknow, and Sir H. Rose's (afterwards Lord Strathnairn) campaign in Central India are among the masterpieces of modern warfare.

Oudh.

§ 184. Lord Canning, in July 1858, declared by proclamation the lands of Oudh forfeited, save in the case of six loyal landowners, offering indulgence to all who threw themselves on British mercy. As his "clemency" had been blamed before, so now he was accused of undue severity. But, in fact, this measure of confiscation was meant to prepare the way for a plan for placing the loyal among the landed aristocracy of Oudh on a footing of greater security and respectability.

§ 185. On the 2nd August 1858, a bill received the royal assent, by which British India was placed under the direct authority of the Crown. Assumption of the Government of India by the Crown.

The machinery of government in England was to consist of a Secretary of State for India, aided by a Council of fifteen. Eight of these must have served in India for ten years. The Government of the Court of Directors came to an end, 1858.

The Directors of the East India Company, at one of their last meetings, voted to Sir John Lawrence a pension of £2,000 a year, thus nobly closing their wonderful career. Pension to Sir J. Lawrence.

Other great changes have followed. The local European army has been abolished. The Civil Service has been thrown open to public competition, as have the engineer and artillery services. Changes.

§ 186. The proclamation issued by the English Government on the assumption of the direct control of British India will fittingly close this subject. Translated into all the languages of the country, it was read aloud, in every station in India, on the 1st November 1858. The Queen's proclamation, 1858.

"Proclamation by the Queen in Council to the Princes, Chiefs, and People of India.

"Victoria, by the grace of God, of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and of the Colonies and Dependencies thereof in Europe, Asia, Africa, America, and Australasia, Queen, Defender of the Faith.

"Whereas, for divers weightier reasons, we have resolved, by and with the advice and consent of the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, in Parliament assembled, to take upon ourselves the government of the territories in India, heretofore administered in trust for us by the Honourable East India Company. India taken by the Crown.

"Now, therefore, we do by these presents notify and declare that, by the advice and consent aforesaid, we have taken upon ourselves the said government; and we hereby call upon all our Allegiance due.

subjects within the said territories to be faithful, and to bear true allegiance to us, our heirs and successors, and to submit themselves to the authority of those whom we may hereafter, from time to time, see fit to appoint to administer the government of our said territories, in our name and on our behalf.

The first Viceroy.

"And we, reposing especial trust and confidence in the loyalty, ability, and judgment of our right trusty and well beloved Cousin and Councillor, Charles John, Viscount Canning, do hereby constitute and appoint him, the said Viscount Canning, to be our first Viceroy and Governor-General in and over our said territories, and to administer the government thereof in our name; and generally to act in our name and on our behalf, subject to such orders and regulations as he shall from time to time receive from us through one of our principal Secretaries of State.

Officers confirmed.

"And we do hereby confirm in their several offices, Civil and Military, all persons now employed in the service of the Honourable East India Company, subject to our future pleasure, and to such laws and regulations as may hereafter be enacted.

Treaties confirmed.

"We hereby announce to the Native Princes of India that all Treaties and Engagements made with them by or under the authority of the Honourable East India Company, are by us accepted, and will be scrupulously maintained, and we look for the like observance on their part.

Native Princes respected and protected.

"We desire no extension of our present territorial possessions; and while we will permit no aggression upon our dominions or our rights to be attempted with impunity, we shall sanction no encroachment on those of others. We shall respect the rights, dignity, and honour of Native Princes as our own; and we desire that they, as well as our own subjects, should enjoy that prosperity and that social advancement which can only be secured by internal peace and good government.

India one with England.

"We hold ourselves bound to the natives of our Indian territories by the same obligations of duty which bind us to all other subjects, and those obligations, by the blessing of Almighty God, we shall faithfully and conscientiously fulfil.

Impartiality.

"Firmly relying ourselves on the truth of Christianity, and acknowledging with gratitude the solace of religion, we disclaim alike the right and desire to impose our convictions on any of our subjects. We declare it to be our Royal will and pleasure that none be in any wise favoured, none molested or disquieted, by reason of their religious faith or observances, but that all shall alike enjoy the equal impartial protection of the law; and we do strictly charge and enjoin all those who may be in authority under

us, that they abstain from all interference with the religious belief or worship of any of our subjects, on pain of our highest displeasure. Toleration.

"And it is our further will that, so far as may be, our subjects, of whatever race or creed, be freely and impartially admitted to offices in our service, the duties of which they may be qualified by their education, ability, and integrity, duly to discharge. Offices thrown open.

"We know and respect the feelings of attachment with which the natives of India regard the lands inherited by them from their ancestors; and we desire to protect them in all rights connected therewith, subject to the equitable demands of the State; and we will that generally, in framing and administering the law, due regard be paid to the ancient rites, usages, and customs of India. Rights of succession. Usages.

"We deeply lament the evils and misery which have been brought upon India by the acts of ambitious men, who have deceived their countrymen by false reports, and led them into open rebellion. Our power has been shown by the suppression of that rebellion in the field. We desire to show our mercy by pardoning the offences of those who have been thus misled, but who desire to return to the path of duty. The Rebellion.

"Already in one province, with the view to stop the further effusion of blood, and to hasten the pacification of our Indian dominions, our Viceroy and Governor-General has held out the expectation of pardon, on certain terms, to the great majority of those who in the late unhappy disturbances have been guilty of offences against our Government, and has declared the punishment which will be inflicted on those whose crimes place them beyond the reach of forgiveness. We approve and confirm the said act of our Viceroy and Governor-General, and do further announce and proclaim as follows:— Amnesty.

"Our clemency will be extended to all offenders, save and except those who have been, or shall be, convicted of having directly taken part in the murder of British subjects; with regard to such, the demands of justice forbid the exercise of mercy.

"To those who have willingly given asylum to murderers, knowing them to be such, or who may have acted as leaders or instigators in revolt, their lives alone can be guaranteed; but in apportioning the penalty due to such persons, full consideration will be given to the circumstances under which they have been induced to throw off their allegiance; and large indulgence will be shown to those whose crimes may appear to have originated

in too credulous acceptance of the false reports circulated by designing men.

"To all others in arms against the Government, we hereby promise unconditional pardon, amnesty, and oblivion of all offence against ourselves, our Crown, and dignity, on their return to their homes and peaceful pursuits.

"It is our Royal pleasure that these terms of grace and amnesty should be extended to all those who comply with their conditions before the 1st day of January next.

Promotion of the good of India.

"When by the blessing of Providence internal tranquillity shall be restored, it is our earnest desire to stimulate the peaceful industry of India, to promote works of public utility and improvement, and to administer its government for for the benefit of all our subjects resident therein. In their prosperity will be our strength; in their contentment our security; and in their gratitude our best reward. And may the God of all power grant to us, and to those in authority under us, strength to carry out these our wishes for the good of our people."

To this prayer all India said, Amen.

The subsequent history of British India shows how thoroughly these principles have been carried out. May it ever be so!

The Queen has since assumed the title of Empress in India.

State of India after the mutiny.

§ 187. The mutiny thus swept away the last relics of the empire of the Moguls, and the last who could claim in any sense to represent the Peshwâ. Lord Canning in 1860 thus wrote:—"The Crown of England stands forth the unquestioned ruler and paramount power in all India, and is for the first time brought face to face with its feudatories. There is a reality in the suzerainty of England which has never existed before, and which is not only felt but eagerly acknowledged by the chiefs."

The "Magna Charta" of the Indian feudatories of the Queen of Great Britain.

Then was issued the Sunnud, or patent of nobility, by which the one hundred and fifty-three feudatories of Britain (see Table in Intro. § 24) were constituted nobles of the English empire.

To these has since been added the adopted son of the late Mâhârâja of Mysôr. (Ch: xi. § 63.)

The patent runs thus, with the necessary alterations in the case of the forty-one Muhammadan chiefs :—

"Her Majesty being desirous that the Governments of the several Princes and Chiefs of India, who now govern their own territories, should be perpetuated, and that the representation and dignity of their Houses should be continued; in fulfilment of this desire, this Sunnud is given to you to convey to you the assurance that, on failure of natural heirs, the British Government will recognise and confirm any adoption of a successor made by yourself or by any future chief of your State that may be in accordance with Hindû law and the customs of your race. Be assured that nothing shall disturb the engagement thus made to you so long as your House is loyal to the Crown and faithful to the conditions of the treaties, grants, or engagements, which record the obligations to the British Governments."

The patent of Indian nobility.

(Signed) "CANNING."

"11th March 1862."

§ 188. It may be convenient to the student to have at hand a summary of the chief events which have marked the Vice-royalties of the XVth, XVIth, and XVIIth Governors-General. The time has not yet arrived for history to deliver an impartial verdict in regard to the men and measures of this period. We shall, therefore, do little more than give a table of the chief events of the years 1860 to 1870.

1860. LORD ELPHINSTONE, who had been Governor of Madras, and afterwards as Governor of Bombay during the mutinies rendered admirable service to his country, died in England immediately after his return. He was succeeded by Sir Bartle Frere; and he again by Sir Seymour Fitzgerald.

Lord Elphinstone. (§ 13.)

The supreme law courts at the seats of government were amalgamated. The High Courts now take cognizance of all cases.

The High Courts.

Similar courts were constituted at Lâhôr and A'gra in 1866.

Sir James Outram died, worn out by his patriotic exertions.

Outram. (§ 157, 174.)

1861. The Penal Code, first drawn up by Macaulay, and afterwards thoroughly sifted and tried, was now introduced. It has worked well.

(§ 196.) The Penal Code.

In addition to munificent rewards to those princes who were faithful to England at this stormy period (and these included *all* the really important native chiefs) an order, called the Star of

British India, was instituted; and in its different grades have been enrolled a large number of eminent natives, and also of British officials, civil and military.

Sir C. Trevelyan. (§ 196.)

Sir C. Trevelyan, Governor of Madras, who had begun his work with much energy, was removed from his office for his published protest against the income tax, for the first time introduced into India by Mr. Wilson. The course of events has tended to show that the income tax is not adapted to India. Sir C. Trevelyan was succeeded by Sir W. Denison; and he again by Lord Napier of Merchistoun.

1862. In March, Lord Canning left India, and in June (17) he died. Cold and haughty in manner, and slow in conception, he was firm and humane. He never for a moment lost his presence of mind during the terrible excitement of the mutinies, and will be remembered as one who loved justice and MERCY.

SUMMARY OF RECENT EVENTS.

PART XV.—LORD ELGIN.

(Comp. § 158.) Lord Elgin. 1862.

§ 189. LORD ELGIN, who had distinguished himself in Canada and in China, took the reins of government, March 12. He soon left Calcutta for the North-west Provinces, and died at Dharmasâla, in the Himâlayas, November 20, 1863.

The Wâhabis at Sittâna.

1863. Some Wâhabî fanatics at Sittâna, on the extreme north-west of the Panjâb, commenced a petty rebellion, which threatened to spread among the Afghân tribes, and which was evidently supported by traitors in the north-east and south. Every Mogul emperor had to contend with these hill tribes. It is said that twenty-five English expeditions have at various times been conducted against them.

Sir W. Denison Viceroy *pro. tem.* (§ 30.)

Sir W. Denison, Governor of Madras, had proceeded to Calcutta, as Acting Viceroy; and Sir Hugh Rose was Commander-in-Chief. Owing to their firmness, the stronghold of the enemy, at the top of the Umbeyla pass, was taken, and the mountaineers were, for the time at least, humbled.

At this time the American civil war caused an immense rise in the price of cotton. Western India became suddenly wealthy; but a mania for speculation arose, and the commercial credit of the enterprising capital of the western coast was terribly shaken. Berâr especially has been greatly enriched by cotton cultivation. (Introd. § 20.)

PART XVI.—Lord Lawrence.

§ 190. Sir John Lawrence, landed again in Calcutta, January 12, 1864, and retained office till the end of 1869. Sir John Lawrence. 1864.

His appointment was the reward of past services; but it was also felt both in England and in India that the reins of government at that critical period could not be in safer hands than those of the great administrator of the Panjâb.

A great impulse was given during this administration to sanitary reforms, to municipal institutions, and more especially to measures for the improvement of the condition of European soldiers, whose importance in India has so much increased since the mutinies.

1864-5. A war, tardily begun, badly conducted, and injudiciously ended, was supposed to avenge the insults heaped by the State and people of Bûtân, or Bhôtân (a small district east of Sikkîm), on Mr. Eden, a British envoy. War in Bhôtân. 1864.

The year 1866 is remarkable for the famine in Orissa, which is said to have swept away two millions of people. While the Government of Bengâl failed in its duty at this emergency, Lord Napier, at the head of the Madras Government, nobly did his. The North-west Provinces suffered in the same way, though not so severely, in 1861; and more recently Râjputâna has added half a million of victims to those sacrificed in Orissa. Such awful calamities, occurring in a time of exceptional prosperity, have excited a deep and abiding feeling of the duty of the Government to be prepared for such emergencies; and they have given an impulse to the various schemes of irrigation by which their recurrence may in part, at least, be avoided. India has always been liable to these terrible disasters at pretty regularly recurring periods. Famine in Orissa. Lord Napier of Merchistoun.

1866. The Bishop of Calcutta, the greatly beloved and admired Cotton, was accidentally drowned while on a tour of visitation. He was succeeded by Dr. Robert Milman. Bp. Cotton. Bp. Milman.

In 1866, Sir R. Temple became Resident of Haidarâbâd. He had previously rendered good service as Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces. A distinguishing feature of this period is the number of able and vigorous administrators who, in charge of provinces where scope was permitted them for the exercise of the highest qualities of statesmanship, and where the increased prosperity of the country has altered the conditions of native society, have earned for themselves reputations almost equal to those of Mountstuart, Elphinstone, Malcolm, and Sir R. Temple. (Introd. § 16.) Distinguished administrators.

Munro. The time, however, has not yet come for fairly estimating the value of the labours of Grey, Temple, Strachey, Muir, Durand, Meade, and many others, to whom the present flourishing condition of the country is in a great measure due.

Nor will the future historian of India pass over such names as those of Sir Barnes Peacock, Sir William Mansfield, and Mr. Sumner Maine, who have done such good service in the Council Chamber at Calcutta.

Hazara war. (Ch. xi. § 6.) 1868. Another frontier war broke out during this year. The scene was near that of the former, among the Hussanzye tribe, in the district of Hazara. The same Wâhabî influences were at work.

Sir A. Wylde. Sir Alfred Wylde, at the head of a splendid force, in a few days brought the insurgents to terms. The whole question of the north-western and western frontier will yet require consideration.

Afghân affairs. (§ 156.) Afghân affairs, again, at this time became of great importance. Shîr Alî Khân, son of Dôst Muhammad (who died in 1863), after many struggles, made good his claim to his father's kingdom. England did not interfere. The old fear of Russian aggression still exists in many minds; but while India is well governed, and every effort is made to preserve the Anglo-Indian military establishments in a state of efficiency, Russia may be safely left to do what she can in Central Asia. Her task is sufficiently arduous. The fact that Russia has occupied Bokhâra is, of course, important; but the idea of a Russian invasion of India from the north-west is gradually dying away.

Russians invasions. The second Afghân war, during which Shîr Alî died, and which has just closed with a treaty between the English and Jacob Khân, the present Amîr, was undertaken to give a "scientific frontier" to the British dominions. 1879.

Tenancy bills. The Pañjâb and Oudh tenancy bills close Sir John Lawrence's administration.

They were passed in a somewhat hurried manner, and were warmly supported by some, and denounced with peculiar vehemence by others. Their effect remains to be seen.

Lord Lawrence in England. The Viceroy on his retirement was raised to the peerage, and Lord Lawrence is still actively employed in furthering schemes for the good both of England and India.

(He died in 1879, and was buried in Westminster Abbey.)

PART XVII.—Earl Mayo.

Recent events. 1869. § 191. Earl Mayo was the next Viceroy. His meeting with Shîr Alî, the ruler of Afghânistân, at Umbâla; the visit of the Queen's second son, the Duke of Edinburgh; and the financial

embarrassments of the Government of India, are the chief topics of the day. The construction of railways is vigorously proceeding in every part of the country.

Pressing questions.

Among the questions now agitating the minds of Indian statesmen, the financial one is felt to be all-important.

The income tax, raised to 3½ per cent. in 1870, and lowered to 1 per cent. in 1871, seems destined to disappear altogether.

It is generally believed that the land revenue has been sacrificed unnecessarily and unwisely in some of the settlements executed in the central and north-western provinces.

The decentralization, in part, of the Government, by granting greater liberty of action to the subordinate governments is under consideration.

A more thorough system of vernacular education, that shall touch the mass of the rural population, is a pressing necessity.

The department of Public Works is on the eve of a thorough and greatly needed reform.

Brahmôism.

The progress of Brahmôism, which is a reform of Brahmanism, somewhat resembling the ancient Buddhistic movement, indicates a great change in the tendencies of Hindû thought.

Changes too many and too rapid.

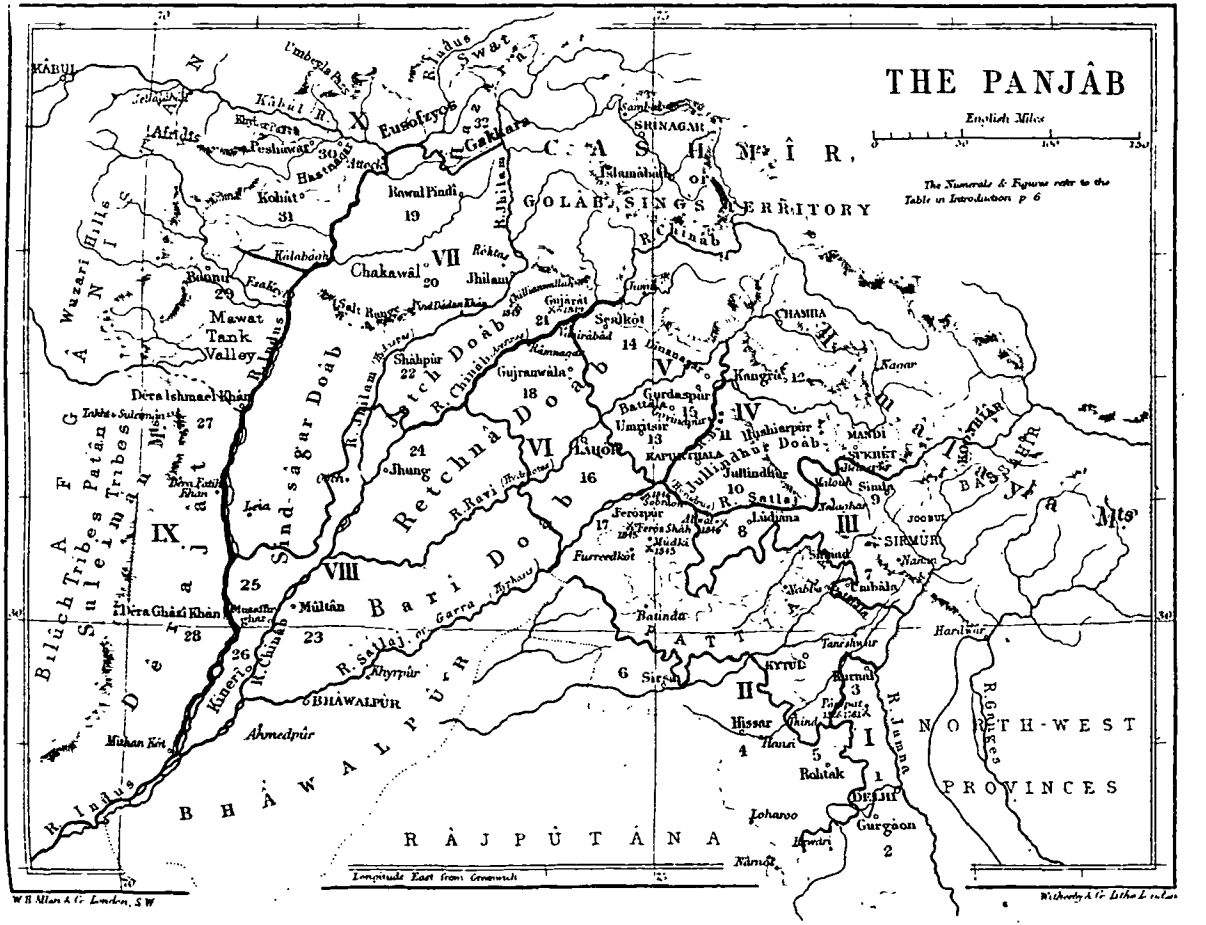
All things in India seem in a transition state. There is reason to fear that the changes in some cases may be too rapid; and that we are exposed to the dangers indicated in § 153 of this chapter.

[The above summary was hardly written before all the civilized world was agitated by the announcement of the assassination of Lord Mayo, at Port Blair, in the Andaman Islands, on the 8th February 1872. The assassin was a convict, under sentence of transportation for life. No political motive could be traced. The voice of the nation pronounced Lord Mayo's career "worthy of his predecessors." The time has not come for an account of his successors.]

§ 192. TABLE OF THE GOVERNORS-GENERAL OF BRITISH INDIA.

1774–1869.

I.	Warren Hastings . .	1774–1785	First Mahratta War. Haidar.
	Mr. Macpherson . .	1785	Acting. (Mahâdajî Sindia.)
II.	Lord Cornwallis . .	1786–1793	Third Mysôr War. Permanent settlement.
III.	Lord Teignmouth . . [Mr. Shore.]	1793–1798	Neutrality. (Oudh. Kûrdlâ.)
	Sir A. Clarke . . .	——	Acting.
IV.	Marquess Wellesley . [Lord Mosnington.]	1798–1805	Fourth Mysôr War. Second and Third Mahratta Wars. Subsidiary System.
V.	Lord Cornwallis . .	1805	Peace-at-any-price policy.
	Sir George Barlow .	1805–1807	Non-intervention. Vellore Mutiny.
VI.	Lord Minto	1807–1813	Travancore. Embassies.
VII.	Marquess of Hastings [Earl of Moira.]	1814–1823	The Pindârî War. Nîpal. Mahratta settlement.
	Mr. Adam	——	Acting.
VIII.	Lord Amherst . . .	1823–1828	First Birmese War. Bhartpûr.
	Mr. W. B. Bayley . .	——	Acting.
IX.	Lord W. Bentinck . .	1828–1835	Mysôr. Kûrg. Reforms. Progress. Peace.
	Sir C. Metcalfe . .	1836	Acting. Freedom of Press.
X.	Lord Auckland . . .	1836–1842	Afghân expedition. First Chinese War.
XI.	Lord Ellenborough .	1842–1844	Afghânistân. Sind. Gwâliôr.
XII.	Sir H. Hardinge . .	1844–1847	First Panjâb War. Progress.
	Mr. Bird	——	Acting.
XIII.	The Marquess of Dalhousie.	1848–1856	Second Panjâb War. Second Birmese War. Annexation. Progress.
XIV.	Viscount Canning . . (First Viceroy.)	1856–1862	Mutinies. Extinction of the Company's dominion.
XV.	Lord Elgin	1862	
	Sir W. Denison . . .	1863	Acting. Border War.
XVI.	Sir John Lawrence .	1864–1869	Oudh settlement.
XVII.	The Earl of Mayo .	1869–1872	Assassinated, Feb. 8, 1872.


THE PANJÂB
English Miles
The Numerals & Figures refer to the Table in Introduction p 6
KÂBUL
Afridis
Peshawar
Kohât
Eusofzyos
Gakkara
Swat
Rawal Pindi
Kalabâgh
Chakawâl
Jhilam
Bannu
Mawat Tank Valley
Wuzari Hills
Dera Ishmael Khan
Sind-sâgar Doab
Shâhpur
Jatch Doab
Gujranwala
Gujarat
Sealkot
Gurdaspur
Umritsar
LAHOR
Kangra
CHAMBA
Hushiarpur
Jullindhur Doab
Jullindhur
Ferozpur
Ferozshah
Mudki
Furreedkot
Ludiana
Simla
SIRMUR
Umbala
Batinda
Sirsah
KYTUL
Kurnal
Hissar
Rohtak
DELHI
Gurgaon
Loharoo
Nârnol
Hardwar
Dera Ghâzi Khan
Mûltân
Kineri
BHÂWALPUR
Ahmedpur
Mithan Kot
Khyrpur
Bari Doab
Retchnâ Doab
Jullindhur Doab
Bilûch Tribes
Patân Tribes
Suleimân Mts
Dêrajât
Kâbul R.
Swat
Jhilam
Chinâb
Ravi
Sutlej
Jumna
Ganges
Indus
Kâbul R.
Umbeyla Pass
Hastnagar
Attock
Salt Range
Pind Dadan Khan
Jhung
Lêia
Dera Fatih Khan
Takht-i-Suleimân
Kalabâgh
Rôhtas
Jhilam
Ramnagar
Vizirâbâd
Jumu
Kangra
Nagar
Simla
Nalagar
Nabha
Tanesh
Hansi
Loharoo
Hawari
Hardwar
Sirmur
Jooboul
Bassahir
Kotkhiar
Mandi
Sukhet
Kalaghar
Kapurthala
Batinda
Sirsah
Hissar
Rohtak
Gurgaon
Kyrpur
Bhâwalpur
Ahmedpur
Kineri
Mûltân
Dêra Ghâzi Khan
Afghânistan
Afghânistan
Cashmîr or Golâb Sings Territory
Srinagar
Islamâbâd
Himalaya Mts
Nagar
Bhâwalpur
Rajpûtâna
North-West Provinces
Longitude East from Greenwich
W B Allan & Co London, S W
Witherby & Co Litho London

CHAPTER XI.

The Panjab.

PART I.—The Geography of the Panjâb.

Importance of this part of Indian history.

§ 1. The history of the Panjâb, the India of antiquity, is the beginning and end of Indian history. It will therefore be useful to the student to have a summary of the leading facts regarding the magnificent "Land of the Five Rivers."

The Panjâb a battle-field.

Although the Panjâb formed, from the very first, a part of the Mogul empire, a great portion of it on the west was nothing but a battle-field, where Afghâns, Síkhs, and others were constantly fighting; sometimes against one another, and oftener against the emperor himself.

Area and population.

Its shape is an irregular triangle, containing more than 50,000 square miles. Its population, when it was conquered by the English, in 1849, was 4,000,000. [Comp. Intro. § 10, p. 5, 6.]

Divisions. Five Doâbs.

§ 2. A study of the map will show that the territory historically connected with the Panjâb consists of:—(1) Five Doâbs (Intro. § 9); (2) the Trans-Indus

frontier, or Dêrajât; (3) the Hazara valley; (4) Golâb Sing's territory, or Cashmîr; and (5) the Cis-Satlaj districts.

Inhabitants. In the central plains are now found Sîkhs and Jâts. Along the valley of the Indus and the north-western borders, Patâns and other Muhammadan tribes abound.

The five Doâbs. § 3. The Doâbs are :—

(Sutledge.) (1.) the *Julindar* (Jullindhar), between the Satlaj and Biâs;

(Beas.) (2.) the *Barî*, between the Biâs, Satlaj, Chinâb, and Ravî;

(Chinâb.) (3.) the *Retchnâ*, between the Ravî and Chinâb;

(Jhelum.) (4.) the *Jetch*, between the Chinâb and Jhîlam; and

(5.) the *Sind-Sâgar*, between the Jhîlam and the Indus.

The Bari the most important. (Prop. *Amrita-Saras = the fountain of nectar.*) The *Barî Doâb* is the most important of these, as it contains the central home of the Sîkh nation, and the three most important cities of Lâhôr, Umritsîr, and Mûltân.

The fertile Sub-Himâlayan plain. From the base of the lower Himâlayan ranges southward, there extends a strip of country, varying in breadth from fifty to eighty miles; watered by the innumerable affluents of the Panjâb rivers; unsurpassed in the world for fertility.

Here are Lâhôr, Umritsîr, Dînanagar, Battâla, Sealkôt, Gujaranwâla (the birth-place of Ranjît Sing), Râmnagar, and Gujarât.

The centres of the Doâbs. The centres of all the Doâbs are wastes overgrown with grass and bushes; inhabited by lawless, nomad, pastoral tribes. Yet the whole is covered with ruins of cities and temples. These cities and monuments are Muhammadan.

The Salt Range. The sterile Sind-Sâgar Doâb is divided into two parts by the Salt Range; which, broken by the Indus, stretches over to the Suleimân mountains. Its inex-

haustible veins of rock salt are of immense value. There are three considerable towns in this Doâb, viz. Râwal Pindî, Chakawâl, and Pind Dâdan Khân.

§ 4. We pass on to the Trans-Indus frontier, with the Dêrajât, or *encamping grounds* of the three great Afghân chiefs in the invasions of Ahmad Abdâlî. (Ch. iii. § 18.) Here we have :— The Trans-Indus frontier.

(1.) the province of *Peshâwar*. Pêshâwar (or, *Peishâwar*). (Zye = son.)

This contains the divisions of Eusofzye, Hastnagar, and Peshâwar proper. The city of Peshâwar, the frontier cantonment of British India, is eighteen miles from the entrance of the Khaibar Pass. "

It was held by Yâr Muhammad, brother of Dôst Muhammad, under Ranjit Sing.

The Trans-Indus frontier contains also :—

(2.) the Valley of Kohât; The Valleys.

(3.) the Valley of Bannu ; (Bunnoo.)

(4.) the Valley of Marwat ; (Murwut.)

(5.) the Valley of Esa Keyl ;

(6.) the Tank Valley ;

(7.) the Dêrajât, with Dêra Ismael Khân, Dêra Fatih Khân, and Dêra Ghâzî Khân ; and The Dêrajât (= place of *tents*.)

(8.) the important commercial towns of Kâlabâgh and Mithan-Kôt.

Various lawless hill tribes inhabit the skirts of the Suleimân range. The Afrîdis, who hold the Khyber and Kohât Passes, are the most important. Hill tribes.

§ 5. In the Jullindhur (or Julindar) Doâb is the protected State of Kapurthala. (§ 34.)

Its Râja is the only representative of the Sîkh Khâlsâ. The Kapurthala Râja.

In the north of the Trans-Satlaj territory is Kangra, formerly Nâgarkôt, which was celebrated in Muhammadan times. (Ch ii. § 8.) Nâgarkôt. (90 miles N.E. from Umritsir.)

Hazara. (= thousands, from the number of petty chieftains.)

§ 6. The district of Hazara is the extreme north-west angle of the Sind-Sâgar Doâb, between the rivers Jhîlam and Indus. It consists of a series of valleys, encircled by hills, and has an area of 2,500 square miles. The Caggars, or Gakkars (ch. ii. § 16), were aborigines of Hazara. (Comp. ch. x. § 190.)

The Caggars.

Cashmir.

§ 7. Cashmîr is an extensive upland plain, situate among the Himâlaya mountains, more than half-way up their height. It is elliptical, and widens toward Islamâbâd. It is about sixty miles from north to south, and 110 miles from east to west. It was once the bed of a large lake, said to have been drained by the Hindû sage Kâsyapa. It is watered by the Jhîlam, which traverses it from east to west. Rice, wheat, barley, and a variety of fruits are produced at different elevations. It is especially famed for its shawls, made from the wool of the Tibetan goat. Saffron is also produced largely there.

Produce of Cashmir.

Summary of Cashmirian history. (The Kâshmiras are mentioned in the "Vishnu Purâna.")

Cashmîr had been governed by Hindû chiefs from remote antiquity, but was over-run by Mahmûd of Ghaznî, in A.D. 1012. (Ch. ii. § 8.) The Tatâr chiefs held it till it was conquered by Akbar. [Ch. iii. § 6 (17).]*

Ahmad Shâh Abdâlî next took possession of it. (Ch. iii. § 22.) The Afghân governor made himself independent in 1809. In 1846 the British made it over to Golâb Sing, whose son now rules it. (Ch. x. § 129.)

Its chief towns are Srînagar, on the Jhîlam, and Islamâbâd.

The serpent worshippers.

A race of kings of Tatâr descent, who were Buddhists, but also serpent worshippers, reigned in Cashmîr from A.D. 21 to the sixth century. They were the authors of many remarkable monuments such as the excavations of Nassik and the cave-temples of Adjunta. They extended their conquests even to Ceylon.

Cis-Satlaj States.

§ 8. Intimately related to the Panjâb are the *Cis-Satlaj States.*

Pattiâla. (Pati-âlaya = *the chief's abode.*)

(1.) The first of these is *Pattiâla*, a protected State. The division of the Sîkhs south of the Satlaj was called the *Mâlwâ Sikhs*, in distinction from those of the Panjâb, who were called *Manjhâ Sikhs.* Of those on the south, who are Jâts, the chief was the *Phulkean* tribe (from *Phul*, their ancestor, a peasant), and at the head of these is the Râja of Pattiâla. His territories were enlarged after the mutinies of 1857, as an acknowledgment of his unwavering fidelity to the paramount power. From 1808 (ch. x. § 67) a political agent has been stationed at Umbâla, for the protection of these Cis-Satlaj chiefs. The great-grandfather of the present Râja, Allâ Sing, was a poor peasant, but raised himself. In this State is *Batinda* (ch. ii. § 7), a grand old fortress, exceeding any of those erected by the Moguls.

(117 miles N.N.W. from Delhi.)

Pattiâla faithful.

English Resident at Umbâla. (*Ambâlaya.*)

Batinda.

Jhînd. (The town is 67 miles N.W. from Delhi.

(2.) *Jhînd* is also a protected State. The origin of this State is like that of Pattiâla. The Râja, Surûp Sing, was faithful in 1857; and was the first man who appeared in arms before Delhi, on the British side, after the outbreak. He was rewarded with a lakh of rupees per annum.

The Râja faithful in 1857.

Rewarded.

Nabha.

(3.) *Nabha* (or *Nabba*) is the third protected State. The Râja of this small territory is a relative of the two preceding Râjas. He also was faithful during the mutinies of 1857, and has been rewarded.

Faithful and rewarded.

British territory south of the Satlaj.

(4.) The British territory on the south of the Satlaj has been divided into five districts:—(*a*) Ferôz-pûr, (*b*) Lûdiâna, (*c*) Umbâla, (*d*) Tanêshwar, (*e*) Simla.

(Comp, Intro. § 10.)

There are altogether, besides the three more important States, six other dependent States, and fifty dependent chiefships in the Cis-Satlaj circle.

PART II.—Summary of Panjâb History to the Rise of Ranjît Sing.

Darius and Alexander in the Panjâb. B.C. 518. B.C. 327.

§ 9. The accounts of the conquest of the Panjâb by Darius, and by Alexander the Great [ch. i. (ii.) § 17–18], are the first glimpses of authentic Indian history afforded us.

Pôrus.

In the time of Alexander, *Pôrus*, who was the principal chief, possessed but one-eighth of the whole of the Panjâb. It was occupied by a multitude of petty rulers.

Bactrians.

§ 10. The Panjâb was after this under the Bactrian kings (ch. i. § 19) till B.C. 126.

Muhammadans.

§ 11. Muhâlib, in A.D. 664, and Kâsim, in 711, conquered Mûltân; but seem to have advanced no further. (Ch. ii. § 4.)

Jeipâl, A.D. 1001.

Lâhôr occupied by Muhammadans, A.D. 1022.

§ 12. The next person connected with Panjâb history is Jeipâl. He is called King of Lâhôr, but was probably a Râjpût king of Delhi, who had annexed Lâhôr to his dominions. His contests, and those of his son, with the first Muhammadan invaders, are related in ch. ii. § 6, 7, &c.

Lâhôr the Muhammadan capital.

§ 13. Masâud II. (ch. ii. § 14) resided at Lâhôr; and there Khûsrû Malik, the last of the race of Mahmûd of Ghaznî, died in 1186. (Ch. ii. § 15.)

The Gakkars.

§ 14. The Gakkars took Lâhôr in 1203, but were expelled by Muhammed Ghôrî, who conquered the whole of the Panjâb.

Under Delhi.

§ 15. For centuries the Panjâb was subject to Delhi, and became the battle-field where the Moguls and Afghâns fought for the possession of India. Its viceroys often rebelled; but it was not till 1414 that one of these, Khizr Khân, usurped the supreme power, and reigned in Delhi, nominally as a viceroy of Tamerlane. (Ch. ii. § 45–46.)

The four Seiads.

The Lôdîs, A.D. 1450.

§ 16. The Lôdîs were from the Panjâb (ch. ii. § 47); and their accession to the throne of Delhi re-united the province to the empire, if empire it could then be called.

A.D. 1526.

§ 17. Daulat Khân Lôdî, the Viceroy of the Panjâb, united with Bâber to invade India.

Bâber burns Lâhôr.

Lâhôr was taken and burnt, as the preliminary to the Mogul conquest of India.

Under Kâmrân.

Shîr Shâh Sûr, 1540.

§ 18. The Panjâb was yielded by Humâyûn to his brother Kâmrân, who was compelled to cede it to Shîr Shâh [ch. iii. § 4 (5)] and flee to Kâbul. Shîr Shâh then founded Rôhtas, which he named after his favourite stronghold between the Ganges and the Sône. It cost him £1,500,000.

The Sûrs, 1551.

Humâyûn returns, 1555.

§ 19. Sikander Sûr, a nephew of Shîr Shâh, proclaimed himself king of the Panjâb in 1554; but was driven into Sirhind by the returning Humâyûn, who took possession of Lâhôr early in 1555. [Ch. iii. § 5 (6); § 6 (5).]

Akbar's brother-in-law is Viceroy, 1581.

§ 20. Akbar was compelled to repel several invasions of the Panjâb made by his brother Mirza Hakîm; and in 1581 Râja Bhagavân Dâs was made viceroy. [Ch. iii. § 6 (15).]

Akbar conquers Cashmîr, 1586.

Cashmîr was conquered by Akbar in 1586. The tribes who occupy the hills around the plain of Peshâwar, the Yusufzyes and Roshenîyes, gave Akbar much trouble, and were never thoroughly repressed. Their descendants are at perpetual war with the English to this day.

"*Eusofzyes*," = sons of Joseph.

Amritsir.

Akbar granted to Râm Dâs, the fourth guru in succession from Nanak, a piece of ground, in which he dug a tank, and called it Amritsir (= the lake of immortality). Around this arose a city, the sacred city of the Sikhs.

Prince Khûsrû, 1605.

§ 21. Lâhôr was the residence of Khûsrû, who was a near relative of Râja Bhagavân Dâs; and it was the scene of his bitter humiliation. (Ch. iii. § 7.)

The Sikhs.

§ 22. The frequent wars of the Mogul emperors with the Afghâns of Kâbul and Kandahâr rendered Lâhôr of great importance; but the Sîkhs, in due time, became more formidable than the Afghâns themselves. The

Nanak, 1526.

rise of the Sîkh power was, in fact, about contemporaneous with that of the British in India. [Ch. iii. § 10 (5).] To this generation the SIKH name gives the Panjâb its greatest interest. The Sikhs have been the worthiest antagonists, and are now among the firmest friends of the paramount power.

Guru Govind, 1675.

It was in 1675 that *Guru Govind*, the tenth spiritual chief in succession from Nanak, formed the sect of the Sîkhs (= *disciples*) into a religious and military commonwealth, or KHÂLSÂ (= *pure*). In their training there was a combination of the ascetic and the knightly character. Cruel persecution converted them into relentless, gloomy fanatics, equally ready to inflict and to suffer the most cruel torments. [Ch. iii. § 12 (9).]

Banda, 1707.

His "Disciples."

They were saved from utter extermination only by the breaking up of the Mogul empire upon the death of Aurungzîb.

§ 23. In 1738 an invading army again marched through the Panjâb, under Nâdir Shâh; and again five times under the Afghân, Ahmad Khân, of the Abdâlî or Durânî tribe, in 1747–1759. In 1751 the province was finally severed from the Mogul empire. (Ch. iii. § 15–18, 19, 20.)

The Panjâb under the Afghâns, 1751.

PART III.—THE PANJÂB UNDER RANJÎT SING.

§ 24. The British Government first came into contact with the Sîkhs in 1808, 9. The chiefs then applied to the Governor-General to protect them from the encroachments of Ranjît Sing.

The Sikhs and Ranjit Sing in 1808, 9.

These chiefs were independent of one another, and were divided into twelve confederacies called MISLS (= *confederations*). (Ch. x. § 67.) The treaty of *Umritsîr* was then concluded between Lord Minto and the Râja (§ 26). Disunion had already prepared the way for their subjugation.

Metcalfe in the Panjâb.

§ 25. RANJÎT SING was born November 2, 1780, and died 27th June 1839. He first rose into importance in 1798, when he recovered some guns for Zemân Shâh, which had been lost in the Jhîlam. He was then appointed Governor of Lâhôr, by the Afghân monarch, in his eighteenth year. (Ch. x. § 38.)

The early history of Ranjit Sing.

In 1803 he proposed to Lord Lake to form a defensive and offensive alliance, on condition that the territory occupied by the Sîkhs south of the Satlaj should be made over to him. This was declined.

Seeks the British alliance, 1803.

The life of the wily Sîkh was given up to the one idea of enlarging his territory, and improving his army for this purpose. Colonel Allard and Colonel Ventura, two of Napoleon's old officers, and Generals Court and Avitabile, entered his service in 1822; and under their training the Sikh army became most effective.

His French generals.

Ranjit Sing is said to have on one occasion visited Lord Lake's camp in disguise, to see for himself what a British army was like.

Charles Metcalfe in Lâhôr, 1809.

§ 26. When the Sîkh Sirdârs of Jhînd, Kytul, and Pattiâla appealed for protection to Lord Minto (§ 24), Mr. Metcalfe was sent as an ambassador to Lâhôr.

A present of horses was afterwards sent to Ranjît Sing by Lord Ellenborough, when he was President of the Board of Control. These were conveyed up the Indus by Alexander Burnes, afterwards famous in Kâbul.

Rûpar, 1831. The Indian "*Field of the cloth of gold.*"

In 1831 Lord W. Bentinck had an interview with Ranjît Sing at Rûpar, on the Satlaj, conducted with extraordinary pomp and magnificence; when an assurance of perpetual amity was given him by the Governor-General. Till his death, which occurred while he was co-operating with the British in the ill-fated attempt to restore Shâh Shuja to the dominion of Afghânistân, he maintained an undeviating course of friendly conduct towards the British Government. His army numbered 82,000 men. His artillery consisted of 376 guns and as many swivels. He was the most remarkable ruler in the East in his day.

His unswerving attachment to the English. (Ch. x. § 110, n.)

His army.

PART IV.—The First Panjâb War.

Ranjit's successors, 1839-1845. (Table, § 47, p. 442.)

§ 27. The death of "the Lion of the Panjâb" was the signal for strife and confusion. The chiefs he had held in subjection, and the kinsmen who aspired to succeed, began to contend in the usual method of Eastern kingdoms.

II. Kurruk Sing, 1840.

Kurruk Sing, an imbecile, succeeded. He died on the 5th of November 1840, after a reign of four months, not without suspicion of poison. His son,

III. Nihâl Sing.

Nihâl Sing, was killed (by a supposed accident) on the day of his accession; and an uncle,

IV. Shîr Sing.

Shîr Sing, seized

the reins of government, aided chiefly by Dian Sing, the favourite minister of Ranjît. This man, in 1843, caused both Shîr Sing and his son to be assassinated; and anarchy ensued till 1845; when, after many bloody episodes, Dhulip Sing, son of Ranjît Sing, by his favourite wife Râni Jindan, was acknowledged as "Mahârâja"; Hîra Sing being prime minister, and the Sirdârs, or chiefs, constituting themselves a council.

V. Dhulip Sing.

§ 28. In 1845 (ch. x. § 12) the most prominent persons there were Golâb Sing of Jamû, the Ulysses of the Panjâb; Lâl Sing, the paramour of Chand Kowr (widow of Kurruk Sing), and her brother Jowaher Sing; and Chatter Sing, the commander of the forces. After several massacres Lâl Sing became Vazîr. It seemed clear that the large and well-trained Sîkh army would not long refrain from some outrage; and the Governor-General, Lord Hardinge, prepared himself, by increasing the number of British troops between Mîrut and the Satlaj to 32,000 men, with sixty-eight field-pieces. The wily Sîkh chiefs saw an easy way of getting rid of a troublesome army by urging them on to cross the Satlaj, and attack the hated English.

1845. Intrigues.

War with England imminent.

§ 29. On the 11th of December 1845, the Sîkh army began to cross the Satlaj, and took up a position not far from Ferôz-pûr. They were numerous, well trained, and glowing with enthusiasm. On the 13th of December 1845, Sir H. Hardinge issued a proclamation, setting forth the unprovoked aggression committed by the Sîkh soldiery, and calling upon the protected chiefs to aid the British Government against the common enemy. THE FIRST PANJÂB WAR, which lasted exactly two months, had commenced.

The Sikhs cross the Satlaj, Dec. 11, 1845.

The proclamation of Dec. 13.

The first Panjâb War.

§ 30. The first battle took place between the Umbâla and Lûdiâna divisions of the British army, and the

Dec. 13, 1845–Feb. 13, 1846.

I. Mûdkí, Dec. 18, 1845.

Sîkhs under Lâl Sing. The armies met at Mûdkí, about twenty miles from Ferôz-pûr. (Lord) Gough's army consisted of 11,000 men; and the Sîkhs had 30,000 men, with forty guns. Under Gough were, among others, the brave generals Sir H. Smith, Sir Walter Gilbert, and Sir J. M'Caskill. The Sîkhs were defeated, after a short and sharp conflict, losing seventeen guns. The English had 215 killed and 657 wounded. The charge of the British infantry soon decided the battle. Sir R. Sale and Sir J. M'Caskill, brother heroes of the Afghân war, fell in this battle.

Sale and M'Caskill fall. (Comp. ch. x. § 110.)

The Governor-General a volunteer.

§ 31. On the next day the Governor-General, who had joined the camp, waiving his rank as Governor-General, placed himself as second under Sir H. Gough. Sir John Littler, from Ferôz-pûr, with 5,000 troops, now joined the main body; and a combined attack was made upon the Sîkh encampment at Ferôz-Shâh, about ten miles from Mûdkí, and about the same distance from Ferôz-pûr. The enemy had entrenched themselves in a camp in the form of a horse-shoe, a mile long and half a mile deep. They had upwards of a hundred guns, well appointed and served, and about 30,000 men. An equal number lay on the further bank of the Satlaj. On the 21st December the whole British army was brought in front of this entrenched camp. The assault began an hour before sunset, and during that remarkable night the English and the Sîkhs were mingled on the battle-field in utter confusion.

II. Ferôz-Shâh, Dec. 21, 1845. (Or, *Feroze-Shuhur.*)

The night of Dec. 21.

Sir H. Hardinge and Sir Hugh Gough bivouacked with their troops in the bitter cold, without food or covering, waiting with anxiety for the eventful dawn. The Sîkhs had stood to their guns so nobly, that when night fell, they still held their camp; and the British soldiers lay down where they had fought, weary, hungry, and far from enthusiastic. Sir Henry himself, about

The renewed battle, Dec. 22.

midnight, led two regiments to silence a battery which was annoying his men. Some even talked of retreat, but that would have roused all Upper India against the Government. Gough, Hardinge, and their brave subordinates, were not men to speak of retreat. At daybreak Hardinge placed himself at the head of the left, and Gough rode at the head of the right wing; and by one rapid, daring movement, drove the enemy out of their encampment and from the village of Ferôz-Shâh. Then, after sweeping the camp, and dislodging the enemy from their whole position, "the line," to use Gough's own words, "halted, as if on a day of manœuvre, receiving the two leaders with a cheer, and displaying the captured standards of the Khâlsâ army." Seventy-three cannon had been taken. Six hundred and ninety-four of the British army had, however, been killed, and 1,721 wounded. The British army was too much exhausted to pursue.

Complete victory.

Later in the day, Têj Sing, with a fresh body of troops, came down upon the exhausted British force. The ammunition was spent; and therefore Sir H. Gough moved on his cavalry to attack their flanks, and prepared his wearied infantry for one more charge. But the Sîkhs, awed by the resolute demeanour of their opponents, suddenly retreated, and the field was won. The Sîkhs had suffered terribly, but the loss of the British was also very great; and it was generally felt that the English had purchased the victory at too dear a rate.

Dearly bought.

Major Broadfoot, distinguished alike as a soldier and a political officer, fell in this battle.

§ 32. There was now a pause. For a month the British force lay all but inactive, waiting for reinforcements and supplies; while the Sîkhs again crossed the Satlaj,

A month of waiting, Jan. 1846.

in front of Lûdiâna, with a train of seventy pieces of artillery.

III. ALIWÂL, Jan 28, 1846.

On the 28th January was fought the decisive battle of ALÎWÂL. Sir Harry Smith, with a small body of troops, had been sent towards Lûdiâna to deter the increasing bodies of Sîkhs from crossing the Satlaj. In this march he was encountered by a body of the enemy under Golâb Sing, at *Buddowâl*, and was not able to attack them, though he suffered severely from their fire. This was looked upon by the Sîkhs as a victory; but, in a few days, having been reinforced by the brigades of Godby, Wheeler, Forster, and Wilson, Sir Harry marched out and attacked them at Alîwâl. The Sîkhs had been disciplined by General Avitabile, and their gunners were especially efficient. Yet they were driven into the river by the steady advance of the British soldiers, who hemmed them in. They lost fifty-six guns and all their stores of every kind. This victory determined the Muhammadan chiefs on the Cis-Satlaj border, who now openly hailed the defeat of their Sîkh oppressors. Golâb Sing, too, began to negotiate with the British authorities.

Buddowâl.

Golâb Sing.

IV. SOBRÂON, Feb. 10, 1846.

§ 33. It only remained for the British to force the passage of the Satlaj, and to take possession of the Panjâb. The Sîkhs entrenched themselves at SOBRÂON, on both banks of the Satlaj. Their camps were connected by a strong bridge of boats, that seemed to say the Sîkhs were still determined to maintain a position in British territory. They had one noble leader, the aged Shâm Sing.

Shâm Sing.

Sir Harry Smith now joined the Commander-in-Chief; and a siege-train from Delhi having arrived, Sir Hugh drew out his forces crescent-wise along the whole Sîkh front, and the battle began before dawn on the morning of February 10. After a terrific cannonade, kept up

for three hours, and replied to with equal energy by the Sîkh batteries, it was determined to carry the entrenchments at the point of the bayonet. This was done. Sir Harry Smith, Sir W. Gilbert, and Sir Joseph Thackwell, won the left and centre of the Sîkh position in gallant style. Shâm Sing, of Attari, in white garments, devoted himself to death, and fell at length on a heap of his countrymen. After two hours of close fighting, the wreck of the Sîkh army was in full retreat across the river. Eight thousand of these gallant, but unfortunate and misguided men, fell either in the battle or in the attempt to cross the river. The British had 320 killed, and 2,063 wounded. Sir R. Dick fell at the head of his men. Sir H. Hardinge was to be seen riding about in the hottest of the fire. The Panjâb now lay at the mercy of England.

The Sikhs driven into and across the Satlaj.

§ 34. On the 13th February the whole British force crossed the Satlaj; and on the 14th a proclamation was issued taking possession of the Panjâb, and announcing the terms on which its occupation would be relinquished. These were marked by moderation and wisdom.

The Panjâb occupied, Feb. 1846.

(1.) The Jullindhur Doâb between the Satlaj and the Biâs was annexed.

The terms. Annexation.

(2.) Cashmîr and Hazara were retained by the conquerors.

(3.) Dhulip Sing was to be sovereign of Lâhôr, under a council of regency; and a British Rèsident was appointed (assisted by a number of the ablest and most gallant men ever brought together into one province in British India), with full authority to direct and control all matters in every department of the State, till September 4th, 1854, when the young Mahârâja would attain the age of sixteen years.

The Mahârâja.

Residents. The first Resident was Sir Henry Lawrence, and the second Sir F. Currie. The Queen-mother was at first Regent, and Lâl Sing was minister. (§ 28.)

Indemnity. (4.) A million and a half sterling was to be paid as part indemnity for the expenses of the war.

British tingent. (5.) A British force was left in Lâhôr for the protection of the Mahârâja.

Cashmîr handed over to Golâb Sing. (6.) Golâb Sing, the Râja of Jumû, the chosen minister of the Khâlsâ, was appointed Râja of Cashmîr, on the payment of one million sterling. The final arrangement was ratified by the Governor-General on the 26th December 1846. (Comp. ch. x. 128–131.)

First Treaty of Lâhôr. This treaty was signed at Lâhôr; but is often called the treaty of Byrowâl.

Honours. § 35. The thanks of both houses of Parliament were voted to the gallant army. Sir H. Hardinge and Sir Hugh Gough were raised to the peerage, and Sir H. Smith was made a baronet. General Gilbert was knighted. A donation of twelve months' batta was also given to the troops. The Governor-General, after arranging these matters, left Lâhôr in January 1847. It was little more than a year, however, before again was heard the muttering of a coming storm!

Chând Kowr and Lâl Sing, 1847. In 1847, a rebellion broke out in Cashmîr against Golâb Sing. The instigator was discovered to be Lâl Sing, the infamous paramour of Chând Kowr. He was sent to the fort of Âgra. Chând Kowr herself was sent a prisoner to Shaikpura, twenty-five miles from Lâhôr, in August 1847, as her constant intrigues destroyed the peace of the kingdom.

PART V.—The Second Panjâb War.

Sir F. Currie. § 36. In March 1848 Sir F. Currie succeeded Sir Henry Lawrence as Resident at Lâhôr. At the same

time, Mûlrâj, the Governor of Mûltân, was negotiating to be relieved from his arduous duties; and Sirdâr Khân Sing, accompanied by Mr. Vans Agnew, a Bengâl civilian, and Lieutenant Anderson, proceeded thither to be installed as his successor. These two Englishmen were assassinated with every circumstance of savage wanton barbarity. "You can kill me if you like, but others will avenge my death," were Anderson's last words.

Ch. x. § 139.

Assassination of Vans Agnew and Anderson, 1848.

Mûlrâj's conduct.

If Mûlrâj did not actually arrange the assassination, he rewarded the murderers, and summoned his followers to defend the fort. The reason for the change of purpose in Mûlrâj seems to have been the indignity put upon him by appointing a Lâhôr Sirdâr to succeed him. He would, it is said, have gladly resigned the district to be taken absolutely by the British Government.

Mûltân.

§ 37. *Mûltân*, so often mentioned in this history, was a city celebrated for its strength.

In the days of Alexander, it was the capital of the Malli, from whom it obtained its name. The province is chiefly inhabited by Jâts (*Getæ, Goths*), descendants of the Scythian invaders. (Ch. i. § 20.) A Muhammadan viceroy ruled there in the days of the Moguls. Conquered by Ahmad Shâh Abdâli (in 1759), it belonged to Kâbul till 1816, when Ranjit Sing annexed it to the Panjâb. Bhâwalpûr alone remained under its own Muhammadan Khân.

Bhâwalpûr.

Lalla Mûlrâj was governor of the district of Mûltân in 1848. It had been resolved to replace him by Sirdâr Khân Sing, and this was believed to be agreeable to Mûlrâj himself, as well as to all the Sîkhs; but the Sîkh soldiery joined with Mûlrâj, and were induced to revolt. The result was an outbreak, and the murder, as mentioned above, of Messrs. Vans Agnew and Anderson. A holy war against the Feringhis was now proclaimed. Bhâwal Khân, of Bhâwalpûr, stood firm as the English ally. Colonel Cortlandt (commanding at Dêra Ismael Khân), and Lieutenant Herbert Edwardes, whose energy and determination speedily gave him the lead, raised a few Sîkhs and Patâns, and joining their

Bhâwal Khân.

Battle of Kineri, 1848. (Kinneyree.)

forces on the 20th May, won the hard-fought battle of Kinerî, on the Chinâb, about twenty miles from Mûltân, on the anniversary of Waterloo, 1848.

"Suddoosain." Battle of Suddosam, July 1, 1848.

The victory of Suddosam, July 1, gained by Edwardes, Cortlandt, and Lieutenant Lake, shut up Mûlrâj in his fort, which was invested; but troops and guns were wanting for the capture of a strong fort a mile in circumference.

Chând Kowr.

Meanwhile it was believed that the outbreak was merely local; but the restless Queen-mother's influence was at work, and a plot was discovered for the massacre of all the Europeans in Lâhôr. The Queen-mother was then sent to Benâres.

General Whish before Mûltân.

§ 38. It was not till the 5th of September that a field force, with a siege train, under the command of Major-General Whish, commenced in earnest the siege of Mûltân. The success of the siege was delayed for a while by the treachery of Râja Shîr Sing, who, with five thousand men, went over to the enemy. General Whish, safely and commodiously encamped about seven miles off, was compelled to wait for reinforcements; and the Sîkhs in Mûltân were, in fact, in a safe prison.

The whole Panjâb rises.

§ 39. Meanwhile the whole Panjâb had risen. Chattar Sing was offering to restore Peshâwar to Dôst Muhammad, as the price of aid from Afghânistân; and Golâb Sing was waiting to see which side was likely to gain. Major George Lawrence was taken prisoner at Peshâwar, and Colonel Abbott was besieged in Attock.

It was well that the Sîkhs now, since they could not reconcile themselves to the new order of things, should openly and unitedly rise against their rulers, so as to render it necessary to give them the benefit of a strong and beneficial government once for all. The question required, in the interests of the people of the Panjâb, a final decision.

THE SECOND PANJÁB WAR.

§ 40. The Sîkh chiefs were not satisfied with their previous trial of strength. A wide-spread conspiracy, which had long existed in the Sîkh army, speedily developed into the SECOND PANJÂB WAR, which lasted till February 1849. The storming of Mûltân (January 21, 1849); the questionable victory of Chillianwallah (January 13, 1849); and the complete and decisive success at Gujarât (February 21, 1849), led to the final annexation of the Panjâb (March 29, 1849). An army, headed by Lord Gough, speedily marched past Lâhôr, across the Ravî, and encamped on the further bank. The Sîkhs were in force at Râmnagar, and it was desirable to drive them across the Chinâb. This was done; but in a splendid cavalry charge, Colonel Havelock, of the 14th Dragoons, and General Cureton were killed. It was "*a victory where nothing was gained.*"

Summary. Ch. x. § 133.

Cavalry skirmish at Râmnagar.

§ 41. Meanwhile, at Mûltân, an attack of Mûlrâj upon General Whish's encampment was repelled with immense loss to the enemy, by Edwardes, Cortlandt, and Markham; and reinforcements having arrived from Bombay, the siege was renewed. On the 27th December, a combined attack was made on the city, which was stormed, after some days of continuous fighting, on the 3rd January; when, after a determined resistance, Mûlrâj surrendered the citadel itself.

Storming of Mûltân, Jan. 3, 1849.

The bodies of Anderson and Vans Agnew were then disinterred, and borne in solemn procession to the topmost point of the citadel, where they were buried. Edwardes was put in charge of the captured city, and General Whish—his work well done—joined Lord Gough. Mûlrâj was sent off a prisoner to the Governor-General at Lâhôr.

Mûlrâj a prisoner.

§ 42. On the 10th Lord Gough's army moved on, and on the 12th came in sight of Shîr Sing's army, near the now famous *Chillianwallah*. Here, at 3 P.M.,

I. *Chillianwallah.* Jan. 12, 1849.

on a most unfavourable ground, amid jungles and brushwood, was fought a battle, of which the plan had never been arranged; and in which any but British troops must have been defeated. The enemy were driven off the field, and forty guns taken; yet at nightfall General Gough had to retire a mile to a convenient camping-ground. The loss of the British troops was unequalled in any of their Indian battles, being 38 officers, 53 serjeants or havildars, and 511 privates. The wounded were 1,600 of all ranks. The loss of the Sîkhs trebled that of the English. Shîr Sing, however, fired a royal salute from the neighbouring heights of Rasûl that evening, and claimed the victory.

Terrible loss and doubtful victory.

Lord Gough's rashness censured.

Sir C. Napier appointed to command.

Public opinion in India and England now grew very excited; and Lord Gough's rashness was the theme of every conversation. Sir C. Napier was appointed to supersede him; and, with half a day's notice, was on his way to India. But ere the news of Chillianwallah had reached England, the decisive and almost bloodless battle of Gujarât had shown how the preceding battle had weakened the gallant foe.

p. 42.

§ 43. Instead of retiring on the Jhîlam, the Sîkhs had taker possession of Gujarát, not far from Vazîrâbâd, the scene of Alexander's victory over Pôrus, and of some great victories won by the Khâlsâ in former days: *the Pânipat of the Panjâb.*

II. *Gujarât*, Feb. 20, 1849. (60 miles N. of Lâhôr.) Splendid and decisive victory.

Here, on the morning of the 20th February 1849, Lord Gough, with an army of 24,000 men, and ninety guns, met for the last time the Sîkh army. The battle of Gujarât completed the overthrow of the Khâlsâ. Lord Gough himself led on the right, and Sir J. Thackwell the left wing of the army. More use was made on this occasion of artillery, the terrible effect of which has seldom been more seen than in this battle. The Sîkhs fought bravely, but were driven from the field in utter

confusion, and pursued for fourteen miles by the British cavalry. By the evening of the 21st fifty-six guns had been taken. The Sîkh standards, camp equipage, and stores all fell into the hands of the victors, who lost only ninety-two killed and 700 wounded. General Gilbert, the "flying general," steadily followed up the fugitives; until, on the 8th March, Shîr Sing himself came into the camp. Thousands of Sîkhs laid down their arms, and received a rupee each as they added their weapons to the vast pile of swords, matchlocks, spears, shields, and camel-guns. On the 14th, at Râwal Pindî, the same scene was repeated, until more than sixteen thousand had surrendered. On the 17th, Gilbert was at Attock, and thence he pursued Dôst Muhammad's flying troops past Peshâwar, to the mouth of the Khaibar Pass.

General Gilbert's pursuit. Shîr Sing's surrender.

The Sîkhs disbanded.

The Afghâns chased to the mouth of the Khaibar.

Thus, to use Lord Dalhousie's words, the war was carried on "to the entire defeat and dispersion of all in arms against England, whether Sîkhs or Afghâns."

The Sîkhs had left all to the final arbitration of war, and it was decided against them.

§ 44. The annexation of the whole country of the Five Rivers was the natural and necessary result. The previous clemency of Lord Hardinge had been thrown away. British officers had been imprisoned and murdered. Every obligation had been violated by these faithless chiefs. On the 28th March, the Mahârâja Dhulip Sing signed in open durbar the treaty which conveyed the realms of Ranjît to the British. A pension of fifty thousand pounds per annum was given to the young Râja.

The annexation of the Panjâb.

The justice of the annexation.

Dhulip Sing.

Among other spoils, the Kôh-i-nûr (hill of light), the largest diamond in the world, was taken and set aside for the Queen of England, who wears it now in a brooch at her levees. From a prince of Mâlwâ it had been taken by one of the Lôdîs; and Ranjit Sing had obtained it from Shâh Shuja, who had inherited it from Ahmad Shâh Abdâlî.

The Kôh-i-nûr.

Second treaty of Lâhôr. The Panjâb heroes.

This treaty may be called the second treaty of Lâhôr. The names of the Panjâb heroes—Gough, Gilbert, Thackwell, Colin Campbell, Cheape, Wheeler, Tennant, Edwardes, Lake, Taylor, Herbert, Abbott, and Cortlandt—will ever shine in the annals of British India.

The fate of the Panjâb leaders.

The Sîkh leaders were still restless and treacherous; and eventually were sent to Fort William, where they remained in arrest for some years. Mûlrâj was tried for the murder of Vans Agnew and Anderson, and found guilty; but his sentence was commuted to imprisonment for life.

The Mahârâja.

The Mahârâja Dhulip Sing was thoroughly educated; and, while still a youth, embraced the Christian faith. He subsequently married a Christian lady of Arabic extraction, and is living in England a dignified and useful life. On him the battle of Gujarât entailed no real loss.

The famous Panjâb Commission.

§ 45. The Governor-General had now to arrange the details of a new system of government for the Panjâb. It was made what is called a "non-regulation" province; a Commission, consisting of Sir Henry Lawrence, Mr. John Lawrence (since Governor-General of India), Mr. Mansell, and Mr. Montgomery, being appointed, to which the administration of the country was intrusted. Assistants, civil and military, were placed in the five circles of Lâhôr, Jhîlam, Mûltân, Leia, and Peshâwar. The whole number of covenanted and commissioned officers was eighty-four. The names of many of these men have become household words; but the details of their work must be studied in the famous reports of the Panjâb administration.

The Chief Commissioner, Sir J. Lawrence, 1853–1858.

§ 46. In February 1853, it was judged desirable to replace this Board of Commissioners by a Chief Commissioner; and Sir John Lawrence was appointed to that office, which he filled till the assumption of the government of India by the Crown.

Administration of the Panjâb.

The Panjâb during the mutinies. The present Government.

The history of the Panjâb and its rulers during the rebellion of 1857 must be read in chap. x. § 17, 18.

It has now a Lieutenant-Governor, and the province of Delhi has been added to its jurisdiction. (Comp. Intro. § 10.)

§ 47. GENEALOGICAL TABLES TO ILLUSTRATE THE HISTORY OF THE PANJÂB.

CHAPTER XI.

Mahâ Sing, of the *Sukurchakea Misl*, = daughter of a Jhînd Râja.

I. RANJÎT SING. (1780, 1809, 1839.) § 25.

(putative.) (putative.)

II. Khuruk Sing. (1840.) § 27. = *Chând Kowr* (1863).*

III. Nihâl Sing. (1840.)

IV. Shîr Sing. (1843.) § 27.

Pertâb Sing. (1843.)

Târa Sing.

V. Dhulip Sing. Born 1838. § 34.

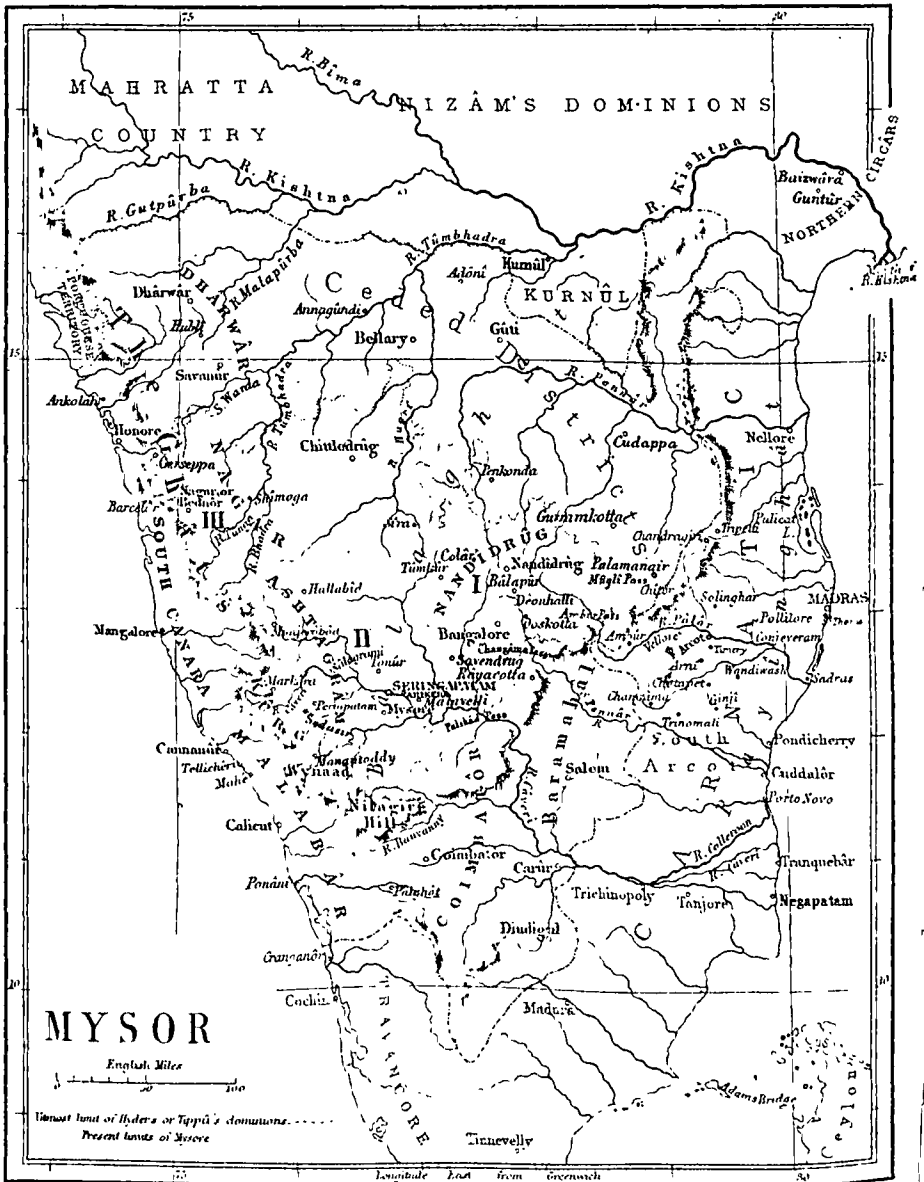
* Her paramour was *Lâl Sing.* (§ 28.)

TABLE OF THE SÎKH GURUS. (Ch. iii. § 10.)

1. Nanak. 1469–1539.
2. Unggad. Died, 1552.
3. Ammar Dâs. Died, 1574.
4. Râm Dâs. Died, 1581. (Ch. xi. § 20.)
5. Arjuna.* Died, 1606.
6. Har Govind.† Died, 1645.
7. Har Rai.‡ Died, 1661.
8. Hurkishen. Died, 1664.
9. Tegh Bahadar.§ Died, 1675.
10. Govind Sing.‖ Died, 1708.

Banda was not a Guru, but a temporal ruler. Died, 1716. (Ch. iii. § 12.)

* Made *Amritsîr* the capital, and compiled the *Granth*.
† Fought under Jehangir.
‡ A friend of Dâra.
§ Put to death by Aurungzib.
‖ The *Muhammad of the Sikhs*.


MAHRATTA COUNTRY
NIZÂM'S DOMINIONS
R. Bîma
R. Kishtna
R. Gutpûrba
R. Tûmbhadra
R. Malapûrba
R. Pennâr
R. Kishtna
Baizwâra
Guntûr
NORTHERN CIRCARS
R. Kishtna
Kumûl
Adôni
KURNÛL
Gûti
Bellary
Annagûndi
Dhârwâr
Hubli
DHARWAR
PORTUGUESE TERRITORY
Savanûr
S. Warda
Ankolah
Honore
Chittledrûg
Cudappa
Nellore
Penkonda
Gummkotta
Shimoga
Barcelôr
Nandidrûg
Palamanair
Mûgli Pass
Chandragiri
Tripeli
Palicat L.
Colâr
Tûmkûr
Bâlapûr
Hallabid
Dêonhalli
Solinghar
MADRAS
Pollilore
Conjeveram
Mangalore
Bangalore
Doskotta
Ambûr
Vellore
Arcot
Wandiwash
Sadras
Tonûr
Savendrug
Rayarotta
SERINGAPATAM
Malavelli
Mysore
Periapatam
Sadasir
Chamnâma
Ginji
Trinomali
Pondicherry
Cannanûr
Tellichêri
Mahe
Wynaad
Mangatoddy
Salem
South Arcot
Cuddalôr
Porto Novo
Nilagiri Hill
Calicut
R. Bhawanî
Coimbatôr
Carûr
R. Cavery
R. Collerown
Tranquebâr
Ponâni
Palghât
Trichinopoly
Tanjore
Negapatam
Dindigul
Cranganôr
Cochin
Madura
Adams Bridge
Tinnevelly
Ceylon
MYSOR
English Miles
0
50
100
Utmost limit of Hyder's or Tippû's dominions
Present limits of Mysore
Longitude East from Greenwich
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CHAPTER XII.

The History of Mysôr.

PART I.—The Geography of Mysôr.

§ 1. Haidar Alî and Tippû Sultân were two of the most remarkable men that ever appeared in India. The capture of Seringapatam in 1799, more than any other single event, rendered British supremacy in India inevitable; and therefore the history of their kingdom, Mysôr, demands the attention of the student.

Boundaries of Mysôr.

Mysôr (prop. *Maisûr*) is bounded on the north-west by the Collectorate of Dhârwâr; on the north and east by the Haidarâbâd Ceded Districts; on the south by the Collectorates of South Arcot, Salem, and Coimbatôr; and on the west by Kanara, Malabâr, and Kûrg.

Description. (Nandidrûg, 31 miles N. by E. from Bangalôr.) (Swarna Dûrga = Golden Fort.

It is a table-land, with a general elevation of 2,000 feet above the level of the sea, having several hills of granite, gneiss, and hornblende, rising in isolated grandeur and crowned with forts. Such are Nandidrûg (4,856 feet) and Saverndrûg (4,004 feet).

20 miles W. by S. from Bangalor.) Divisions. (*Chittledrûg* was a fourth division.)

It is divided into three districts:—

(1.) Bangalôr; (2.) Ashtagrâm, of which Mysôr is the chief town; (3.) Nagar. (Intro. § 14.)

Dêonhalli. (20 miles N.N.E. from Bangalôr.) (70 miles from Seringapatam, N.W.)

Besides the other places mentioned in the history, *Dêonhalli*, the birthplace of Tippû, is to be especially noted. At Manzerâbâd, on the borders of Kûrg, are large and prosperous coffee plantations.

Rivers. (Intro. § 34.)

Many rivers rise in and about Mysôr:—

(Intro. § 34.)

(1.) The Câvêrî rises in Kûrg. Seringapatam is on an island in its course.

(2.) The Tûnga and the Bhadra, whose union forms the Tûmbhadra, and the Hugrî, a tributary of the Tûmbhadra, rise in the Ghâts between Nagar and Kûrg. The Pennâr and Pâlâr rise near Nandidrûg.

Division of the history of Mysôr.

The history of this province is divided into:—

A. The records and traditions of the ancient dynasties from 1507, to the usurpation of Haidar Alî in 1760;
B. To the death of Haidar in 1782;
C. To the death of Tippû Sultân, in 1799;
D. To the death of the Râja, in 1868; and events since.

PART II.—The History of Mysôr to the Rise of Haidar.

From 1507–1760.

Ancient capitals.

Ballâla kings, A.D. 950–1310.

§ 2. The whole Karnâtaka country was in ancient times under Ballâla sovereigns, who were overthrown by Malik Kâfûr in 1310. (Ch. iv. § 9–17.) The capital was then Dwâra Samudra. (Ch. ii. § 28.) Its ruins are at Halabîd, 100 miles north-west of Seringapatam. Tonûr (or Yâdavapuri) then became the capital.

§ 3. The earliest authentic account of any settled government in the country after this is the history of a

Râja or Zamîndar called (Kam, or) Châm Râj, the six-fingered, who possessed a part of the country in 1507. Châm Râj, the six-fingered, 1507.

§ 4. His successor, Betad Châm Râj, in 1524, divided the little sovereignty among his three sons; of whom the youngest, Châm Râj the Bald, became master of the site of the present city of Mysôr, where a fort was erected and called Mahisasura, from a buffalo-headed demon, said to have been slain by the wife of Siva. This is the origin of the name Mysôr. Foundation of Mysôr, 1524.

5. The fall of the great Hindû city of Bîjanagar in 1565 (ch. iv. § 29) rendered the infant Mysôr state independent. Rises as Bijanagar falls.

The rulers of the various Muhammadan states did not at that time pay any attention to the petty kingdoms in the south.

The expelled Bîjanagar princes for a time took up their abode at Seringapatam, where they kept up a kind of state. (*Shrî-ranga-patnam* = the sacred town of Vishnu.)

§ 6. Gradually the portions of the divided (§ 4) territory were re-united; but it was Râj Udeiyâr (or *Wadeyâr*) (died in 1617) who, after completing the re-union, extended the limits and greatly consolidated the power of the kingdom. Râj Udeiyâr, 1617.

Seringapatam became the seat of the government in this reign, the Bîjanagar dynasty having become extinct. This Râja was at that time the chief Hindû prince south of the Kishtna. Seringapatam, 1610.

§ 7. The greatest of his descendants was Kantî-Rava Narsa Râj (1640–1659), who repelled an invasion of Mysôr by the Bîjapûr state; added to the fortifications of Seringapatam; established a mint; made war with Kantî-Rava Narsa Râj, 1640-1659, (= the deep-voiced, *a lion*; corrupted "*Canteroya.*")

Madura; and annexed several of the neighbouring petty states.

Mysôr between the Dakhan kingdom and the Mahrattas, 1659–1704.

§ 8. The crown now passed to a distinct branch of the royal family. The two next kings were Dodda (*Senior*) Dêo Râj (1659–1672), and Chick (*Junior*) Dêo Râj (1672–1704).

Mysôr, now a considerable state, had to contend with the Muhammadan power in the Dakhan, then in its zenith, as well as with the rising Mahrattas.

Chick Dêo Râj, 1672–1704.

Sivajî possessed Ginjî and Vellore; while Tanjôr, Bangalôr, and other places not far off, were in the hands of other Mahratta chiefs. (Ch. v. § 24.) Chick Dêo Râj prudently avoided all contact with the belligerent parties, and set himself to bring his own feudatories into absolute subjection. He was the Philip Augustus of Mysôr.

Despotic.

(The Jangams are worshippers of Siva, and wear the Lingam.)

His government was most despotic, and his exactions drove many villagers to the neighbouring Nîlagiri hills, where their descendants dwell, under the name of Burghers, or Badagas (*people from* the north). He put down all opposition, however, by an indiscriminate massacre of the Jangam priests.

Purchase of Bangalôr.

(Ch. v. § 7.)

He bought Bangalôr from the Tanjôr Râja (Ékojî or Venkajî) for the small sum of three lakhs of rupees; and obtained from Aurungzîb the title of Râja, with the privilege of sitting on an ivory throne. This throne still exists.

The powerful Ministers, 1731.

§ 9. The next two Râjas were Kantî-Rava II. and Dodda Kistna, both imbecile. The result was the virtual sovereignty of the two ministers, Dêo Râj and his cousin Nandi-Râj.

They may be said to have completely usurped all the functions of government before 1731; and they actually deposed and imprisoned the next Râja, Châm Râj.

The Peshwâs in Pûna were doing the same thing at the same time. (Ch. v. § 40.)

Invasions of Mysôr.

§ 10. In 1733, Mysôr was invaded by Dôst Alî, Nuwâb of the Carnatic: he was, however, defeated by Dêo Râj, whose cousin, the first Nandi Râj, had died shortly before. Nizâm-ul-Mulk now demanded tribute at the head of an army (1743), and Dêo Râj thought it better to submit.

Nandî Râj the Younger.

(Ch. viii. § 24.)

§ 11. Dêo Râj had a younger brother, called also Nandî Râj, to whom he now made over the virtual sovereignty. This Nandi Râj (the second) to strengthen his position, married a daughter of the titular king, Chick Kistna Râj. We find him aiding Muhammad Alî in 1752.

Siege of Dêonhalli. Haidar's first appearance.

In 1749, Nandi Râj undertook the siege of Dêonhalli, where Haidar Naik, then a comparatively young man, distinguished himself as a volunteer. From this time this remarkable person is the most prominent figure in the history.

Mysôr humbled and distracted by dissensions, 1756. (Ch. iii. § 16.)

§ 12. In 1755, Dêo Râj was compelled to pay a tribute of fifty-six lakhs of rupees to Salâbat Jung, who was aided by Bussy. There was now a quarrel between the brothers regarding the treatment of the young Râja, whom they kept in a state of splendid captivity.

(Ch. v. § 66.)

On one occasion Nandi Râj blew open the palace gates; set the trembling Râja on the musnud; and mutilated his principal adherents before his face. About this time (1756) the Mahrattas under Bâlâjî Bâjî Râo appeared before Seringapatam, and compelled Nandi Râj to pay a heavy tribute, and to surrender a large portion of territory.

PART III.—From the Usurpation of Haidar to the Conclusion of his First War with the English.

1760–1769.

Haidar Alí.

§ 13. It was now time for some strong hand to grasp the reins, and Haidar Alî stood ready. The history of Mysôr henceforth is the history of this daring adventurer, and that of his son; and is a most important portion of the British Indian annals.

His usurpation.

In 1760 Haidar made himself master of the kingdom.

His origin.

He was the grandson of a religious mendicant from the Panjâb, and the son of a brave cavalry officer.

Haidar's history.

He was born at (or near) Kolâr in 1702; entered the Mysôr service at the age of thirty; and was soon promoted to the command of 50 horse and 200 infantry, with authority to augment his forces as he could. He was then put into command in the Dindigal district; where by plunder, deceit, and cunning he obtained large funds and a considerable army.

(A valley formed by spurs of the W. Ghâts; 75 *miles long* and 20 broad.)

He now induced the minister, Nandi Râj to resign; and had then only the Queen-mother, the young Râja, and their general, Khandi Râo, to contend with.

Contest with Nandi Râj, 1761.

After a smart engagement, in which he was defeated, and some wily negotiations, Haidar, at last, in June 1761, received from the Râja a formal renunciation of the kingdom, three lakhs a year being assigned to the Râja for his support, and one lakh to Nandi Râj. The latter personage, being detected afterwards plotting against Haidar, was consigned to perpetual imprisonment.

§ 14. Haidar now attacked and took Bednôr, where he found immense treasures, which materially aided him in his rise. This was an æra in his history. He afterwards reduced the whole province, which was before this under a Nâyakan Râja. Taking of Bednôr, 1763. (Bednûr.)

The son of Chandâ Sahêb joined him about this time.
Bednór, or Nagar, was a great city, the seat of a viceroy of the Mangalûr Râja. It is now in ruins. Haidar gave it the name of *Haidar-nagar*, or Haidar's town. Here (§ 34) Matthews was taken prisoner and poisoned. Eighteen miles to the north are the ruins of IKERY, the ancient capital of that district.

§ 15. In 1765, the warlike Mâdu Râo (ch. v. § 74) determined to chastise the audacious Mysôr usurper, who had now 20,000 horse and 40,000 foot soldiers under his banners. Contest with Mâdu Râo, 1765.

Haidar was signally defeated by the Mahratta hero; and was compelled to relinquish his new conquests, and to pay thirty-two lakhs of rupees. Terrible defeat.

Ragobâ, the uncle and guardian of Mâdu Râo, was the mediator between the young Peshwâ and Haidar.

Haidar seemed to rise more powerful after each overthrow.

§ 16. In 1766, he invaded Malabâr and took Calicut, the Râja of which burnt himself in his palace to avoid captivity. (Ch. iv. § 8.) Malabâr.

§ 17. A confederacy against Haidar was now formed by the Mahrattas and the Nizâm; into which, unfortunately, the Madras Government was drawn, by the terms of its treaty with the Nizâm. Triple confederacy against Haidar. (Comp. ch. iii. § 16, and ch. v. § 74–76.

The Mahrattas under Mâdu Râo, without waiting for their allies, passed the Kishtna, and began to plunder; but were bought off by Haidar. The Mahrattas bribed, and the Nizâm.

The Nizâm was also bribed by Haidar, not only to forsake the confederacy, but to join in an attack on the

The First Mysôr War, 1766–1769.

(R. Smith came out with Clive in 1765.)

Battles of Changâma and Trinomali, Sept. 3, 26, 1767.

English. Colonel Smith, who commanded the British contingent, thus found himself with about 7,000 troops and sixteen guns, opposed to an army of 70,000 with one hundred guns.

He defeated them, however, at *Changâma* (Singarpetta) and *Trinomali*, taking sixty-four guns and killing 4,000 of the enemy.

NOTE.—*Trinomali* (*Tiru-annâ-malai*) is a place of great repute among the Hindûs. It is a few miles north of the Ponnâr, or Southern Penâr. Changâma is a little to the east. They are both in the Collectorate of South Arcot.

The quarrel with England, which was to lead to four great wars; which Haidar was to maintain till his death; and which his son was to take up and carry on to his destruction, had begun. Thirty-three years of hostility to England accomplished the ruin of the dynasty.

Tippû.

§ 18. It was at this time that Haidar's son, Tippû, then seventeen years of age, was employed with a body of 5,000 horse in plundering up to the very gates of Madras.

British treaty with the Nizâm, 1763. (Ch. iii. § 16.)

Haidar badly treated.

§ 19. The Nizâm sought for peace, his territories having been invaded by a Bengâl force under Colonel Peach. A peace was signed in 1768, which was in every way discreditable to the Madras Government. In this treaty Haidar was referred to with extreme contempt, as a rebel and usurper; and it was stipulated that the English should take the Carnatic Bâlaghât from him, and hold it under the Nizâm.

The influence of Muhammad Ali was injuriously felt in all these negotiations.

Haidar triumphant on the Western Coast.

§ 20. A British force from Bombay now invaded the Western Coast, destroyed the Mysôr fleet, and took Mangalôr and Honôr. Haidar, however, soon drove the assailants away; and the British commander abandoned even his wounded, 260 in number, to the Mysôrean's fury.

NOTE.—*Mangalûr*, a very ancient city, whose bazaars are crowded with every nation.
Honáwar. There was a British factory here in 1670. Mr. Best and seventeen of his companions were massacred here by the Brâhmans. It belonged to the Rânî of Gerseppa. Near it are the famous Gerseppa falls.

(Mangalûr = *Town of gladness.*) Honáwûr.

§ 21. The war in the *Baramahál* and Carnatic was pushed on, however, by Colonel Smith with such energy and success, that Haidar lost eight of his principal forts and all the mountain passes, and was prepared to make considerable sacrifices for peace. The Madras Government foolishly declined. The tide now turned: Colonel Smith had been superseded; and Haidar recovered in six weeks all he had lost, and ravaged the Carnatic almost unchecked. The Madras Council now, in their turn, sued for peace. Smith was again put at the head of the army, and kept Haidar at bay. But the wily Mysórean, sending his guns, baggage, and infantry back, advanced with unexampled rapidity, with 6,000 chosen cavalry, to within a few miles of Madras.

Smith victorious in the *Baramahál*. (This is a small province, having Mysór on the N. and W., Salem on the S., and the Central Carnatic on the N. and E.)

Reverses.

Here he dictated a peace, on the basis of a mutual restitution of conquests, with the stipulation, that "in case either of the contracting parties should be attacked, they should mutually assist one another to drive out the enemy."

Haidar dictates a peace, 1769.

Thus ended, in disgrace to the English, the FIRST MYSÒR WAR, 1766–1769.

PART IV.—FROM THE CONCLUSION OF THE FIRST MYSÒR WAR TO THE DEATH OF HAIDAR.

1769–1782.

§ 22. Haidar now resolved again to defy the Mahrattas, who were commanded by Trimback Mamâ. The result was an overwhelming defeat at Chêrkûlî, and he was

The Mahrattas defeat Haidar at Chêrkûlî, March 5, 1771.

(Or *Chirrikûrli*, not far from Seringapatam.) soon shut up in Seringapatam. Haidar was often drunk at this period; and in a drunken fit once beat Tippû with savage cruelty. Haidar, in his distress, applied, but in vain, for the promised assistance of the Madras Government; and he was at last obliged to purchase the departure of the Mahrattas by a payment of thirty-six lakhs of rupees, the promise of an annual tribute of fourteen lakhs, and the cession of territory to an extent that reduced the kingdom to almost its original size (1772). (Ch. v. § 79.)

The English refuse to help him.

His sacrifices, 1772.

Haidar never forgave the English.

His savage conduct in Kûrg. (Ch. v. § 83.)

(Comp. ch. x. § 90.)

§ 23. The troubles of the Mahratta Confederacy gave the indomitable Mysôrean time to recover himself. He attacked Kûrg; and, the people making a noble resistance, he treated them with savage ferocity, offering five rupees for the head of each male: seven hundred heads were thus laid at his feet, and paid for by himself.

His progress, 1776-1779.

Before the end of 1776 he had regained all the lost territory; and had, moreover, taken Bellârî (or Bellary), Gûti, and Savanûr. By 1778 the Kishtna was his northern boundary; and in 1779 he annexed Kûrpa.

(Or Kadapa, or Cuddapah.) (See Map, p. 444.)

With these acquisitions the Mysôr dominion had now reached its utmost extension.

Haidar's offers of assistance rejected by the English.

§ 24. During this period Haidar, dreading the Mahrattas, would willingly have made peace with the English, and offered to assist in carrying Ragobâ to Pûna. (Ch. v. § 90.) His offers were neglected.

Haidar quarrels with the English about Mahé, 1779.

§ 25. On the breaking out of war between France and England in 1778, the English took Pondicherry (held till 1783), and proposed to take Mahé. This Haidar resented: it was in his dominions, and under

his protection; but the place was taken in 1779, Haidar angrily protesting. The missionary Schwartz was sent as an envoy to him, but could effect nothing. (Ch. vii. § 5.)

§ 26. A confederacy was now formed, consisting of all the Mahratta chiefs (except the Gaekwâr), Haidar, and the Nizâm, to drive the English out of India. The confederates might have succeeded, if Warren Hastings, with incomparable energy and genius, had nôt come to the rescue. Mr. Hornby, the President of Bombay, seconded him with admirable vigour and prudence. (Ch. x. § 9.)

Triple confederacy against the English. (Ch. v. § 101.)

1779.

§ 27. Haidar was, however, the only one of the confederates that was thoroughly in earnest. Though he was in his seventy-eighth year, he personally superintended every preparation for the war; and in June 1780 had collected an army of 90,000 men, mostly trained and led by European officers, with a powerful artillery, also under European direction. England had never up to that time had to contend in India with a worthier foe.

The vast preparations of Haidar in 1780.

Having caused solemn supplications for the success of his expedition to be made in every mosque and Hindû temple, he poured his mighty armament down the Changâma Pass, on the 20th of July 1780.

The SECOND MYSÔR WAR, 1780-1784.

Ruthlessly he laid waste the whole country. Muhammad Alî's commandants treacherously abandoned to him all the forts in his way; and in a few days he was at Conjeveram, fifty miles from Madras. The SECOND MYSÔR WAR had begun in good earnest.

His invasion of the Carnatic, July 20, 1780.

Sir Hector Munro, who had distinguished himself in Bengâl (ch. ix. § 24), was commander-in-chief, with 5,000 troops; and Colonel Baillie, in command of 2,800 men, was on his way to occupy Guntûr. These bodies

Munro.

Baillie.

of troops should have been united; but Munro allowed Haidar to interpose: the result was that Baillie's force was cut up; his stores, baggage, and equipments taken; and Baillie himself, with about two hundred men, was taken prisoner, after gallantly sustaining thirteen attacks of the enemy. The lives of the prisoners were saved only by the humane interposition of Haidar's French officers. Munro was no more than two miles distant, and his appearance on the spot would have converted the disaster into a decisive victory. He now retreated to Madras; and thus ended this memorable campaign of twenty-one days.

I. Baillie's defeat and captivity. The first battle of Pollilór, near Conjeveram, Sept. 10, 1780.

Hastings to the rescue.

§ 28. A vessel was immediately sent to Calcutta, to bear the tidings to Hastings of the greatest reverse the English arms had ever sustained in India.

He hesitated not a moment; but bent all his energies to the one task of saving the Carnatic for the English.

In three weeks an army under the veteran Sir Eyre Coote, now commander-in-chief in Bengál, was on its way to Madras, with fifteen lakhs of rupees for the use of the army. Coote reached Madras on 5th November; but was not able to take the field till the 17th of January 1781. Meanwhile Haidar had besieged Arcot, and after six weeks, took it, through the treachery of its Brâhman commandant. Lieutenant Flint defended Wandiwash in a manner that reminds us of Clive's defence of Arcot; but he was allowed to remain unrewarded.

Sir E. Coote in Madras, Nov. 1781.

Flint's defence of Wandiwash.

(Cuddalúr, 16 miles S. of Pondicherry.)

Coote marched towards *Cuddalór*, but was obliged to remain inactive for four months for want of provisions. Haidar now determined to engage him; and, marching 100 miles in two days and a half, took up a strong position near *Porto Novo*. Coote instantly attacked him; and, after a battle which lasted six hours, obtained a decisive victory. Haidar lost 10,000 men, and fled,

II. The battle of Porto Novo, 1781. (32 miles S. from Pondicherry.)

almost alone, from the field of battle. Tippû immediately raised the siege of Wandiwash, which the heroic Flint had thus saved.

§ 29. Meanwhile, for the second time, Hastings had sent a large army by land to aid a distant Presidency. (Ch. v. § 96.) Some Brâhman sepoys had refused to go by sea; and had mutinied, with circumstances of peculiar atrocity. To remove the difficulty of a sea voyage, Hastings sent them along the coast by land, a distance of 700 miles.

The second great land march. 1781.

Colonel Pearce marched on the 7th of January 1781; and, though he lost a great number of men by cholera in Orissa, reached Pulicat in July. Coote, by a masterly movement, effected a junction with this force on the 2nd of August.

Colonel Pearce and Coote.

Haidar met Coote's combined forces, at the same spot where Baillie had been defeated, and on the anniversary of that day, according to the lunar year. His astrologers promised him another victory on that lucky spot, and on that auspicious day (August 27). Haidar lost 2,000 men, and Coote 400; but the result, though favourable to the English, was not decisive.

III. Coote avenges Baillie's defeat on its anniversary. The second battle of Pollilor. Aug. 1781.

A third great battle was fought at Sôlinghar, near Vellore, 27th September. Coote's victory here was complete. Haidar's loss was 5,000 men, while that of the English did not exceed 100.

IV. Battle of Sôlinghar, Sept. 27.

The Mysôrean by this time had learned to tremble at the name of COOTE.

§ 30. Lord Macartney now succeeded as Governor of Madras. War had been declared with Holland, in consequence of the Dutch having joined the "armed neutrality," a confederacy which aimed at destroying the maritime supremacy of Great Britain. Haidar Alî at

Lord Macartney, 1781. (Ch. x. § 9.)

Intrigues with the Dutch.

(Nâgapatnam.) once began to negotiate with the Dutch authorities at Negapatam, who gladly made a treaty with him. Lord Macartney, having a force collected from all sides, without the consent of Sir Eyre Coote, sent Sir H. Munro; and, with the co-operation of the fleet, Negapatam was attacked and taken on the 12th of November. Stores and goods of great value were found there. The

Trincomali taken. noble harbour and town of Trincomalî, in Ceylon, was taken from the Dutch in January 1782.

At the peace of Versailles, in 1783, these conquests were finally made over to England.

V. Defeat of Colonel Braithwaite. **§ 31.** At this time Colonel Braithwaite, deceived by treacherous spies, was defeated by Tippû with an overwhelming force, on the banks of the Colleroon, after a

VI. Defeat of Haidar's troops before Tellichêri, 1782. (*Tellicherry.*) heroic struggle of twenty-six hours. To counterbalance this, the garrison of Tellichêri, after having been besieged for eighteen months, made a sortie, and took 1,200 of Haidar's troops prisoners, with all their baggage, ammunition, and cannon. This roused the whole Western Coast and Kûrg against their detested conqueror.

Hastings' measures, too, were producing a sensible effect on the position of affairs.

The terms of the treaty of Salbâî were arranged in January 1782. (Ch. v. § 102.)

French naval expedition in aid of Haidar. **§ 32.** Haidar was now beginning to despond, when a French armament under Admiral Sufferin appeared at Pulicat. Admiral Hughes encountered and defeated the Frenchman; who, however, succeeded in landing 2,000 French soldiers and 1,000 Africans at Porto Novo. Several indecisive engagements were fought by sea and land, of which the chief was before *Arnî*, 2nd July 1782. The French admiral took Trincomalee. Admiral

VII. (74 miles S.W. from Madras. Hughes sailed for Bombay to refit; but his fleet was

dispersed by a tremendous gale, October 15. Admiral Bickerton landed 4,000 English troops at Madras, and immediately set sail. Madras was a prey to famine, from which the deaths were 1,500 a week. To crown all, Sir E. Coote returned at this very crisis to Bengâl. There had been disagreements between him and Lord Macartney; and Coote's temper was irritable. He resigned his command ostensibly from ill-health. The prospects of the English were gloomy on every side, when tidings arrived of the death of Haidar, on the 7th of December 1782, at the age of eighty, of a carbuncle.

Haidar's magazines were there).

Coote resigns.

The death of Haidar, Dec. 1782.

Utterly uneducated, he raised himself by mere force of character and will to the lofty eminence on which he so long stood. He was the Sivajî of the south; and the resemblance in some points is striking. Yet Sivajî had a nation at his back, and was the defender of their faith; while Haidar was in Mysôr an alien, and a persecutor of the religion of his subjects.

His character.

PART V.—TIPPÛ'S HISTORY TO HIS HUMILIATION. 1782–1792.

§ 33. Pûrnia and Kishna Râo, two able Brâhman ministers, concealed Haidar's death; and sent word to Tippû, who was 400 miles distant on the Malabâr coast. Tippû reached the army on the Coromandel coast on the 2nd of January 1783; and found himself at the head of an army of 100,000 men, with three crores of rupees in his treasury, besides jewels and other valuables to an enormous amount.

Tippû takes command, Jan. 1783.

§ 34. Tippû, happily for British interests, speedily set out again for the Western coast, where he imagined the greatest danger to be.

Tippû on the western coast, 1783.

There Major Abingdon had reduced Calicut, and Colonel Humberstone and Colonel Macleod had intrenched themselves at *Ponâni*.

(30 miles S. by E. from Calicut.)

General Matthews had taken possession of Honôr; five large ships belonging to Tippû had been taken; and now Bednôr was given up to Matthews without a struggle.

(§ 29.)

Sieges of Bednôr and Mangalôr, Jan 30, 1784.

This intelligence took Tippû to the spot with all his army. Bednôr was retaken, and subsequently Mangalôr; though both were defended with the utmost gallantry. These sieges cost him half his army. Matthews himself was taken prisoner. (§ 36.)

General Stuart's failure.

§ 35. Meanwhile, General Stuart, who had succeeded Sir E. Coote, was not the commander to retrieve the British fortunes in the Carnatic. Moreover, Lord Macartney seems to have injudiciously controlled him.

Bussy again in the Carnatic.

The veteran Bussy, with 2,300 French troops and 5,000 French sepoys, landed at Cuddalôr, to aid Tippû, April 10, 1783. Sir E. Coote was again sent from Calcutta to take the command; but the veteran expired in his palanquin two days after his arrival at Madras, April 26. He was one of the greatest of generals. His gallant services extended from 1756 to 1783.

Death of Sir E. Coote, 1783.

Indecisive conflicts.

Stuart now undertook, in his imbecile way, the siege of Cuddalôr. Sufferin and Hughes also fought at sea, but with no decisive result.

Bernadotte.

In one of the sorties at Cuddalôr, Bernadotte, then a sergeant, afterwards one of Napoleon's Marshals and King of Sweden, was taken prisoner.

The French leave Tippû's army.

Tidings happily arrived at this juncture of the peace of Versailles; in consequence of which Bussy immediately ceased all military operations, and recalled the French officers in Tippû's army. Lord Macartney, who had repeatedly found fault with General Stuart, now sent him to England in arrest.

Stuart had arrested Lord Pigot in 1776. (Ch. x. § 9.)
Malcolm (Sir John) landed in India this year.
Munro (Sir Thomas) was in the battle of Porto Novo.

§ 36. An expedition under Colonel Fullerton was now sent into the heart of Mysôr.

Colonel Fullerton invades Mysôr. (52 miles W. by N. from Trichinopoly, near the Kâveri.)

He took *Carûr*, Dindigal, Pâlghât, and Coimbatôr; and was on the point of marching for Seringapatam, when Lord Macartney, with strange ignorance of native character, sent envoys to Tippû to propose a peace; and, despite all the opposition of Hastings (whose Indian career was drawing to a close), and of others, hurried it on; so that Tippû was able to make it appear that the English were suppliants to him for peace.

Lord Macartney makes peace on a wrong basis.

Colonel Fullerton, at the head of his army, would have negotiated more effectually before Seringapatam.

The surviving British prisoners, whom Tippû had treated with disgusting and savage cruelty, were released; and all conquests on either side were restored. Baillie, Matthews, and the chief among them, had already been murdered in prison by the miscreant.

Tippû's atrocities.

Thus ended the Second Mysôr War, in the disgraceful treaty of Mangalôr (1784).

Treaty of Mangalôr, 1784.

It required another war to undo the evil effects of this foolish treaty. The day it was signed Tippû assured his French allies that he would as soon as possible renew the war with England.

Effects of the treaty on Tippû's mind. (Ch. v. § 104.)

§ 37. Tippû was now at liberty to carry out his own schemes; and it soon became evident that he was ambitious of making himself the greatest, if not the only, ruler in India.

Tippû's ambitious schemes.

His blind and furious zeal for Muhammadanism, his mad hatred of the English, and his ferocity, detract from what would otherwise be almost a great character. In his career, lofty ambition, some military genius, and

His character.

consummate bravery were conspicuous; but he was wild and visionary.

His character much resembles that of Jûna Khân Tughlak. (Ch. ii. § 36.)

Kanara and Kûrg.

His first two expeditions were into Kanara and Kûrg, whence he carried away upwards of 100,000 persons; whom he forcibly made into Musalmâns, and then distributed among his garrisons. This was their punishment for taking advantage of the late war to assert their independence.

His assumption of supreme authority. [Ch. iii. § 3 (4).]

His next step was to assume the title of "Pâdshâh," which properly belonged to the Emperor of Delhi alone; and, from that time, his name was inserted into the public prayers instead of that of Shâh Âlam II., who was the nominal Emperor of Delhi.

Mahrattas and the Nizâm combine against him.

§ 38. Tippû now had to encounter a great and pressing danger. The Mahrattas under the rule of Nânâ Farnavîs (ch. v. § 106), and the Nizâm, combined to crush him, and to share his dominions between them. The result was, that the Mysôrean boldly carried the war into the districts north of the Tûmbhadra, took Adônî and Savanûr, and brought the confederates to terms. He agreed to pay arrears of tribute, and to restore the captured towns; while they abandoned the war, acknowledging him sole ruler up to the Tûmbhadra.

He gains the victory.

Tippû at his zenith of power.

§ 39. Tippû was now beside himself with pride. He forthwith made an expedition into the Malabâr district, where he offered the Nâyars the option of death or the Kurân.

His blind bigotry, 1788.

He thus converted or expelled the whole population; and destroyed, according to his own account, 8,000 temples.

There is no doubt that Tippû, at this period, even aimed at becoming a kind of prophet in the estimation of the people.

Lord Cornwallis (ch. x. § 18) could not interfere, unless Tippû should first violate the treaty subsisting between himself and the English.

§ 40. This the infatuated Mysôrean soon did. Travancore, protected by the Ghâts and by its lines (a wall and ditch covering the whole frontier), had hitherto escaped the horrors of war. Its Râja had formed a defensive alliance with the English a few years before. Tippû now found out various grievances which rendered it necessary for him to punish the Travancore Râja. The harbouring of some fugitive Nâyars was the crowning injury. Accordingly, in December 1789, he made an attack on the Travancore lines; but was repulsed with immense loss, escaping almost alone, his palanquin and all his ornaments, seals, and rings, having fallen into the hands of the enemy.

Tippû attacks Travancore. (Ch. v. § 108.)

His defeat, Dec. 1789. Tippû's loss and mortification.

His rage was terrible, and he vowed not to leave his encampment till he had taken ample revenge. Three months were passed in preparations, carefully concealed from the English; and in April 1790, he began the work in earnest, and was soon inside the wall.

He renews his attack.

Sir A. Campbell was then Governor of Madras. General Medows became Governor of Madras in 1790; and Sir R. Abercrombie at the same time became Governor of Bombay. Both were employed in the war against Tippû.

§ 41. Lord Cornwallis now, of course, interfered. A treaty was signed by the Nizâm, in which he ceded Guntûr, according to the terms of the treaty of 1768; and an arrangement was made by which he was to co-operate in the war against Tippû, and to share in the territory which might be taken from him. The Mahratta

Lord Cornwallis interferes.

Another triple alliance.

Government (ch. v. § 108) were also invited to join the confederacy, and were to share in the spoil. Nânâ Farnavîs consented to this; for his fear and hatred of Tippû overcame even his reluctance to co-operate with the English.

THE THIRD MYSÔR WAR, 1790–1792.

The Marquis now informed Tippû that his conduct in attacking an ally of England had made him an enemy of the British power. General Medows began the campaign in such a way as to show that an abler general was needed to cope with Tippû. Lord Cornwallis himself then came down from Calcutta to take the command of the army; which advanced up the Ghâts at once by the Mûglî Pass, having deceived Tippû (who was lingering near Pondicherry, anxious to conclude an alliance with the French) by a pretended march to Ambûr.

Lord Cornwallis in Madras, 1790.

Advances into Mysôr.

(Palcode.)

NOTE.—The principal passes into Mysôr from the Carnatic are the *Múglí*, the *Palikád*, the *Ambûr*, the *Changáma*, and the *Áttúr*.

Takes Bangalôr.

Bangalôr capitulated on the 21st of March. Tippû now marched to defend his capital; and on the 13th of May at Arikêra, a short distance from Seringapatam, was fought a battle, in which Tippû sustained a complete defeat.

Battle of Arikêra. 1791.

At this time Tippû sent an embassy, asking for aid of Louis XVI. of France, who refused to assist him.

Delay in taking Seringapatam.

§ 42. Seringapatam would now have been taken; but the British force and the Nizâm's contingent were in want of every necessary; and Lord Cornwallis was obliged to return towards Madras. A day after his homeward march had begun, the Mahrattas came up: their dilatoriness had mainly caused the failure of the campaign Harî Pant, their general, was intent only on plunder.

Hartley and Little, Dec. 6, 1790.

§ 43. Meanwhile two officers had especially distinguished themselves. These were Colonel Hartley

(ch. v. § 98–101) and Captain Little. The former defeated Husain Alî, before Calicut, taking him prisoner with 2,500 of his men. Hartley's force was only 1,500 strong. His loss was 52.

Captain Little took *Simoga*, after thirty-six hours hard fighting. The Mahrattas perpetrated horrible cruelties on the wretched inhabitants, after the English had taken the fort. General Abercrombie, Governor of Bombay, reduced the whole province of Malabâr.

(Srî *Muga*, on the Tûnga, 122 miles N.W. from Seringapatam.)

General Abercrombie in Malabâr.

§ 44. Lord Cornwallis employed the remainder of the year in clearing the Baramahâl, and in reducing Tippû's fortresses, deemed by the Mysôreans impregnable; but which were taken with ease by the British troops.

Lord Cornwallis in the Baramahâl.

In January 1792, the Governor-General's arrangements were complete, and the British army took the field with a splendour and completeness of equipment which astonished all India. Harî Pant, with a small body of troops, and the Nizâm's son with 8,000 men, showy but unserviceable, joined Lord Cornwallis, and on the 5th February the siege began. Tippû had strengthened his defences to the utmost. They consisted of three lines protected by 300 cannon, the earthworks being covered by an impenetrable hedge of thorn. These works were stormed on the night of the 6th, with the loss of 530 killed and wounded. Tippû lost in killed, wounded, and deserters, 20,000 men.

THE FIRST SIEGE OF SERINGAPATAM, 1792.

The siege was pressed on; and Tippû at length, by the advice of his officers, acceded to the terms dictated by Lord Cornwallis. He was to cede half his territories, to pay three crores of rupees, besides thirty lakhs to the Mahrattas, and to give up two of his sons as hostages.

Tippû yields.

The treaty was nearly broken off, when Tippû found that Kûrg was included in the territories to be ceded; but the

Governor-General was ready at once to push on the siege, and the Sultân was obliged to yield.

Unfaithfulness of the Nizâm and the Mahrattas. (Ch. v. § 108.)

§ 45. The Nizâm's troops and the Mahrattas had rendered no assistance, and had even treacherously corresponded with the enemy; but Lord Cornwallis divided the territory and the indemnity money scrupulously between them. The English territorial gain was: (1.) the district of Dindigal; (2.) the Baramahâl; and (3.) the province of Malabâr. Kûrg was restored to its own Râja. (Ch. x. § 90.)

Territory gained.

NOTE.—The *Baramahâl* is the district above the Ghâts, of which Salem is the capital.

The Southern Panjâb.

The territory between the five rivers, the Kishtna, Gutpûrba, Malapûrba, Southern Warda, and Tûmbhadra, was thus wrested from the Mysôrean, and restored to the Mahrattas.

Honours.

§ 46. Much discussion arose about this treaty. In England it was at length approved of, the thanks of Parliament were voted to Lord Cornwallis, and he was made a Marquess.

Indian powers of recent origin.

It must be remembered that, of the great powers of India at the time, the Peshwâ, Sindia, Tippû, and the Nizâm, none had existed sixty years; and that the dominion of each was founded on usurpation, fraud, and violence.

English position at the close of this war, 1792.

England had now shown to all India that her power far surpassed that of any of these rival states; which had, in fact, sunk into insignificance in this struggle; while the might of England was felt to be matchless in the East.

The disgraceful convention of Wargâom, and the infamous treaty of Mangalôr, were alike forgotten. A new æra had begun.

Thus gloriously for the English ended their Third Mysôr War. February 1792.

PART VI.—TIPPÛ'S HISTORY FROM HIS HUMILIATION TO HIS DEATH. 1792–1799.

Peace, 1792–1798.

§ 47. Six years elapsed without any breach of this treaty; and the two hostages were sent back to their father in 1794.

Tippû's intrigues with the French.

Tippû meanwhile strengthened himself, nursed his hatred against the English, and entertained a body of French officers, by whom his army, in all its branches, was brought to a state of great efficiency.

The Mauritius proclamation, 1798. (Battle of the Nile, 1798.)

The "*Mauritius Proclamation*" brought matters to an issue. This was put forth by the French Governor of the Mauritius, and announced that envoys from Tippû had arrived in the island, proposing an alliance offensive and defensive, and asking for troops in order to expel the English from India.

"*Citizen Tippû!*"

A french frigate at this time landed 100 men, civil and military, at Mangalôr. These, on reaching Seringapatam, organised a Jacobin Club under the auspices of "Citizen Tippû," planted a tree of liberty, crowned it with the cap of equality, and proclaimed the French Republic, one and indivisible!

Lord Wellesley's determination to put down Tippû.

§ 48. The Marquess Wellesley (ch. x. § 37) at once called on Tippû to disavow his embassy to the Mauritius; and meanwhile prepared for war. The Madras Presidency was weak in men, and almost bankrupt; the Nizâm and the Mahrattas could not be relied on; but the Governor-General said:—"If Tippû is stronger than we are, he is master of the Dakhan"; and he resolved that England should at any cost retain the mastery.

The Nizâm joins the alliance.

§ 49. Lord Wellesley first negotiated with the Nizâm (ch. iii. § 16); and a subsidiary alliance was the result (1798). Captain Malcolm (Sir John) contrived to

arrange the placing of the Nizâm's army on its new footing (including the elimination of the French element), without loss of life.

(Ch. v. § 117.) The Peshwâ, while refusing to form a subsidiary alliance, gave an assurance of his fidelity to the existing engagements.

THE FOURTH MYSÔR WAR, 1799.

§ 50. Bonaparte was now in Egypt. The Directors wrote out, authorising a war with Tippû; and the Marquess Wellesley made all his arrangements with promptitude, and sent down to Madras His Majesty's 33rd Regiment, commanded by his own brother, Colonel Wellesley (afterwards the Duke of Wellington). He himself arrived in Madras, December 31, 1798; and proceeded to negotiate with Tippû, who tried to procrastinate, and actually wrote to Zemân Shâh, inviting him to join the Holy War, in which the infidel English were "to become food for the swords of the pious warriors." (Comp. ch. x. § 38.)

Marquess Wellesley in Madras, 1798.

Tippû's efforts.

Bonaparte's letter. (First Consul, 1799.)

Bonaparte wrote him, that "he had arrived on the borders of the Red Sea, with an innumerable and invincible army, full of the desire of delivering him from the iron yoke of England.

§ 51. Tippû treated the Governor-General's envoy Major Doveton's embassy with contempt; and Lord Wellesley at length informed him, that General Harris, who was advancing with an army into Mysôr, would be prepared to receive any embassy he might send.

Preparations for War.

The British forces.

The Nizâm's contingent.

The Marquess Wellesley and Lord Clive (Governor of Madras, son of the great Clive), by unparalleled efforts had raised and fully equipped an army of 20,800 men, of whom 6,000 were Europeans. To this was added 10,000 of the Nizâm's cavalry, with 10,000 foot, under European officers, led by Colonel Wellesley and Captain Malcolm, though nominally commanded by the Nizâm's

son. (Ch. iii. § 16.) General Harris was commander-in-chief of the whole combined forces. Colonels Read and Brown were in the Baramahâl and Coimbatôr; and General Stuart led the Bombay troops, who marched from Cannanûr through Kûrg to *Periapatam* (Priyapatnam = *beloved town*). General Hartley, and Colonels Montressor and Dunlop, were with this army.

The army sent against Tippû. (37 miles W. from Seringapatam. The seat of an ancient Poligâr.) Priyapatam.

At Sedasîr, a few miles from Periapatam, the first battle was fought. Tippû's forces, commanded by himself, were routed with the loss of 2,000 men.

I. The battle of Sedasîr, March 6, 1799.

§ 52. General Harris (under whom were, among others, General Baird, General Floyd, Colonel Wellesley, Lieutenant-Colonel Barry Close, Lieutenant-Colonel Agnew, and Captain Malcolm), marched through the valley of Ambûr and the Baramahâl to Râyacotta, where he encamped, March 4. From thence he advanced to Malavelli, twenty-six miles from Seringapatam. Here took place the second struggle. The result was a loss to the Sultân of 1,000 men, while the English lost only sixty-nine.

General Harris's staff.

II. The battle of Malavelli, March 27. (*Malayavali*, E. of Seringapatam.)

NOTE.—Râya-Kôṭai = *King's fort*. It is ninety-two miles from Seringapatam, and the key to the Mysôr table-land.

General Harris now crossed the Câvêrî to the south of Seringapatam. This movement, secretly carried out, was unexpected by Tippû, and threw him into a state of deep despondency.

The crossing the Câvêrî.

§ 53. The whole united army was before Seringapatam by the 15th of April. Tippû was now in despair. He consulted soothsayers; caused prayers to be offered in Muhammadan mosques and in Hindû temples; sent vakîls to propose terms of peace; and then, in rage and mortification, refused to yield to the terms imposed

The whole besieging army on the ground.

Tippû's state of mind.

by Lord Harris. No trace of common sense, or of generalship, is discernible in his behaviour at this period.

The breach.

The storming, May 4, 1799.

Baird.

The storming of Seringapatam.

§ 54. The breach on the south-western face of the fortifications was reported practicable on the evening of May the 3rd. On the 4th, General Baird, who had for four years been a prisoner in the dungeons of the city, led the troops to the assault. Colonel Sherbrooke commanded the right column, Colonel Dunlop the left, and Colonel Wellesley the reserve; and 4,376 men were in the trench waiting for the signal to advance. General Baird, a few minutes before 1 P.M., ascended the parapet, drew his sword, and, with the exhortation to the troops to "follow him, and prove themselves worthy of the name of British soldiers," led on the gallant band.

In seven minutes the British flag was planted on the summit of the breach. The two columns, after encountering many obstacles, and stout opposition from a small band of Mysôr troops, met over the eastern gateway. The city was taken.

The death of Tippû.

His burial.

(= *pleasure-garden.*)

The body of the Sultân himself was found in a palankîn under an archway, beneath a heap of slain. It was buried with military honours the next day by the side of Haidar, in a beautiful mausoleum in the Lâl Bâgh. A terrible thunderstorm raged during the burial.

His barbarity.

It was ascertained (and it takes away any lingering feeling of pity for the tyrant) that every European prisoner taken during the siege had been put to death by Tippû.

Tippû, the tiger.

Tippû signifies *tiger*. A tiger was his favourite badge. He kept numbers of them chained in his fort. And this one word best expresses his disposition.

Tippû's plaything.

A curious illustration of Tippû's mingled ferocity and childishness is still in existence. In the palace of Seringapatam was found a clumsy piece of mechanism, which, when put in motion, represented a tiger tearing an Englishman. An arrangement within the machine caused the tiger to growl, and the Englishman to cry out! This, which was the plaything of the Sultân and his court, is in the India Museum in England.

§ 55. Pûrnia, the minister; Kamr-ud-dîn, the chief officer; Fatih Haidar, the Sultân's eldest son; and all the principal officers, civil and military, now surrendered themselves. The whole kingdom lay at the feet of the victor. Immense stores, about a million sterling in money, and many costly jewels, were taken in the city; and the collection of state papers revealed the surprising extent and variety of the Sultân's intrigues against the hated English.

The surrender of the chief officers.

State papers.

Colonel Wellesley was made commandant of the captured city, in which he soon restored order and confidence; and the Governor-General proceeded to make arrangements for the disposal of the conquered kingdom.

Wellesley in command.

§ 56. This conquest undoubtedly rendered England supreme in the Dakhan. It was the first manifestation of that wonderful energy with which English wars in India have ever since been conducted. It remained for the victors to show an example of moderation in the hour of triumph. The arrangements made were the following:—

Effects of the conquest.

1st. The family of Tippû was justly set aside; and its members were removed to Vellore, where a suitable provision was made for them. (Ch. x. § 55–58.)

Tippû's family.

2nd. The representative of the ancient Hindû royal family, a child of five years of age, was living with his mother in an obscure hut in the suburbs. They were brought forth from their obscurity; and the child, whose name was Krishnarâj Udaiyâr Bahâdar, was put upon the throne.

Restoration of the ancient dynasty.

The new Râja of the old stock.

3rd. The Company took possession of Kanara, Coimbatôr, and the Wynaad.

4th. The districts of Gurramcotta, Gûti, and others near Haidarâbâd, were made over to the Nizâm.

5th. Some districts were offered to the Peshwâ, but rejected by him.

Territory taken by English.

The Nizâm's share. (Or *Gurramkonda*, 130 miles N.W. from Madras, in the Bâlaghât.)

The Seringapatam commission.

The commission that sat in Seringapatam to arrange these matters was composed of General Harris, Colonel Wellesley, Mr. Henry Wellesley, Colonel Fitzpatrick, and Colonel Close. The secretaries were John Malcolm and Thomas Munro.

PART VII.—MYSÔR UNDER THE HINDÛ DYNASTY AND BRITISH CHIEF COMMISSIONERS, 1799——.

The new Râja's history. (= tenth. A great festival in honour of Râma.)

§ 57. The history of the ancestor of the new Râja is curious. When the puppet Râja, Châm Râj, died (in 1775), the direct male line was extinct. Haidar had been accustomed to exhibit, on the feast of the *Dasara*, the poor Râja on a throne of state to his subjects. To keep up the pageant, he resolved to appoint another Râja. For this purpose he collected a number of children belonging to all the families related to the royal house. These were introduced into a room, where were scattered abroad in abundance all things that could attract a child. One little fellow selected for himself a lime, which he held in his left hand, and a little dagger, which he grasped with his right. "This," exclaimed Haidar, "is our Râja. With one hand he takes the fruits of the earth, and with the other the means of protecting his subjects."

The Mysôr royal family.

The assembly murmured applause. The little boy, under the name of Châm Râj, was installed as Râja. He died of small-pox in 1795; and Tippû, resolving no longer to maintain the pageant of a Râja, turned the widow and her son, then two years of age, out of the palace, and caused them to be conveyed to a miserable hovel in the suburbs of the city. This boy was the Râja now put on the throne by the Governor-General. The story throws light upon Haidar's own character; and shows the slender claim of the family in question to the sovereignty of the land.

The present administration of the province.

Pûrnia.

§ 58. During the minority of the Râja, the able minister Pûrnia conducted the affairs of the kingdom. General Wellesley remained, during the intervals of his campaigns, till March 1805, to discharge the duties of Commissioner of Mysôr; and by his administration conferred permanent benefits upon the people. Colonel (Sir Barry) Close was the first Resident at the new court.

Wellesley. (Napoleon made Emperor, 1804. Trafalgar, Oct. 1805.)

Close.

Pûrnia's retirement.

§ 59. In 1812, Pûrnia retired, and a sum of £2,812,500 was then found in the treasury. Pûrnia was handsomely pensioned, and Linga Râj was made Dîwân, with diminished powers. The Râja soon dissipated the treasure; and oppressed his subjects to such an extent that a rebellion broke out.

Everything was venal. The troops were unpaid, and the Râyats were ground down by excessive and arbitrary taxation.

The British Government interferes.

§ 60. In 1832, the British Government interfered, as the treaty of 1799 required them to do. (Ch. x. § 89.) The mismanagement had been so gross, and the Râja had been so entirely deaf to advice pressed upon him, that it was felt that the Governor-General could do nothing but take the entire management of the state from his unworthy hands. Sir T. Munro, when Governor of Madras, had visited Mysôr, and personally urged amendment upon the Râja, but in vain. Sir Mark Cubbon was chief commissioner under the new system from 1836 to 1861. A liberal pension was assigned to the Râja. The country has been exceptionally prosperous from that time. The administration reports are of exceeding value. Mr. L. B. Bowring, who had charge of the province from 1862 to 1870, introduced many important reforms; and, in fact, remodelled the whole administration. The present (1871)

Lord W. Bentinck, Governor-General.

1820.

The Râja set aside.

chief commissioner is Colonel R. J. Meade. (Ch. x. § 181.)

His death. Adoption.

§ 61. The Râja died March 27, 1868, without heirs. He had, however, adopted, in 1865, a distant relative called Châm Râjêndra. In 1867 Her Majesty's Government were pleased to recognise this adoption; and the young chief has been proclaimed Mahârâja of Mysôr. He is about six years old, and will receive a training suitable to his rank and prospects.

The new Mahárája.

While much difference of opinion exists as to the propriety of again confiding this important district to the care of a Hindû prince; we may be sure that the interests of 4,000,000 of people will ever be carefully watched over by the paramount power.

NOTE.—1870.

Sir R. J. Meade was succeeded by Mr. C. B. Saunders.

The present Chief Commissioner is Mr. J. D. Gordon, C.S.I.

The district is slowly recovering from the effects of the terrible famine which swept away one-fourth of its inhabitants.

Arrangements are being made for the transference of the province to the Mahârâja.

CONCLUSION.

We here draw our brief summary of Indian History to a close.

The student has now in his hands the clue which will serve to guide him through its intricate mazes.

In the Introduction his attention has been directed to the spectacle, unique in the history of the world, of a vast Oriental Empire, consisting of many flourishing states, administered by Englishmen under the British Crown. Intro. § 1-25.

We have surveyed, in a cursory manner, the immense and varied tracts of country to which the title of the Anglo-Indian Empire has been given. Intro. § 26-38.

In the first Chapter we have seen an ancient race, possessed of marvellous powers, civilised to a considerable extent, and kindred to our own, spreading itself abroad in Hindûstân. They elaborated great systems of philosophy; and composed splendid poems in a language, the flexibility, copiousness, philosophic structure, and sonorous grandeur of which are the admiration of the learned. They founded and propagated two religions; one of which, no longer possessing votaries in India itself, is yet the most widely extended religious system in the world. Ch. i. § 1-15.

The history of India then becomes, in a great measure, the record of a series of invasions of Hindûstân by Western and North-Western races,—Persians, Ch. i. § 16-28.

Greeks, Afghâns, and Ta(r)tars; and the annals of the
B.C. 518. dynasties which some of these invaders founded. The ancient Persian Empire numbered the Panjâb among its satrapies; and the Grecian conqueror, by whom that empire was subverted, achieved a wider and a
B.C. 330-126. more lasting conquest of North-Western India and the adjacent provinces. Traces of Grecian rule long lingered around the Indus.

Ch. ii. § 4. After the interval (hardly bridged over by a weak and wavering tradition) of nearly a thousand years, the fiery zeal of the Muhammadans led to the conquest of
A.D. 711. Sind, at the very time that Gebir and Mûsa founded the famous Moorish kingdom in Spain.

Ch. ii. § 6. Nearly three hundred years after this, and about the period of the Norman conquest of England, the Ghaznî-vide dynasty established itself on the banks of the Ravî, having passed from Ghaznî to Lâhôr.

Mahmûd of Ghaznî's dominion is followed by that of
Ch. ii. § 16. Muhammad of Ghôr; and each of these conquerors, or
1186-1206. rather plunderers, is said to have made twelve marauding, iconoclastic expeditions into India, north of the Nerbudda.

About the time of the first English Edward, a "slave
Ch. ii. § 19. of the Sultân of Ghôr" made Delhi the capital of a
1206. Muhammadan empire in India. Amid many vicissitudes it remained so, till England took possession of it. The Muhammadans thus in about a century and a half made a permanent advance from Lâhôr to Delhi.

Ch. ii. § 19-48. Successive dynasties, five in number, chiefly founded by slaves, exercised dominion in Delhi and Âgra for
1526. 320 years; till, in the time of Henry the Eighth, Bâber,
Ch. iii. the founder of the great Mogul empire in India, begins the conquest of Hindûstân. The Moguls and Tatârs had, before this, repeatedly crossed the Indus; and Teimûr in 1398, had actually for a short time occupied Delhi. His descendant, Bâber, founded the most illus-

trious and enduring dominion that has ever existed in India.

Meanwhile, when Edward I. was conquering Wales, Allâ "the Sanguinary" was subjugating the Dakhan, where ancient Hindû races had hitherto lived undisturbed by the commotions in Hindûstân. Cruel emperors and their generals followed in his footsteps. In the Dakhan, we see, fifty years after Allâ's memorable invasion, a Muhammadan kingdom hardly inferior in splendour to that of Delhi itself, arising at Kulbûrga. 1294. Ch. ii. § 31. Ch. iv. Ch. iv. § 20. 1347.

The fragments into which, after about 150 years and about the time of Bâber's conquest of Delhi, that kingdom was broken up, were not again entirely brought under the Mogul dominion, till the time of Aurungzîb, when the Mogul empire itself was hastening to dissolution.

The last great Hindû kingdom in the south, that of Bîjanagar, had fallen before the combined armies of these Dakhani Muhammadan kings in A.D. 1565. Ch. iv. § 29.

Yet the Hindû races were not extinct. They possess a wonderful vitality. During the long period of the Mogul ascendancy, we see the Râjpûts, the proud representatives of the ancient Hindû Râjas, identifying themselves with their Muhammadan conquerors in a singular manner. Though thus closely connected with the Moguls, their independence survives the downfall of the house of Teimûr. Ch. iii. § 6.

Moreover, there now arises in the Dakhan a Hindû power, which never for a moment is really at peace with the Muhammadans; which holds itself ever ready to spring upon them, like the tiger on its prey; and which at length reduces the thirteenth Mogul emperor to ignominious servitude. The Delhi Musalmâns, in fact, overcame their brethren in the Dakhan, only, as it seemed, to prepare the way for a universal Mahratta dominion. Ch. v.

Ch. v. § 70. But the Mahrattas themselves, in the plenitude of their power, received a check from an Afghân invader, who crossed the Indus six times; and after inflicting a crushing defeat upon the combined forces of that ambitious people, declined to ascend the throne of the Moguls.

Ch. vi., vii. Meanwhile, the discovery of the route to India by the Cape of Good Hope led to a series of more important invasions of India by the nations of modern Europe, who came in the garb of merchants; but soon began to entertain the design of founding a permanent dominion in the East.

Ch. vi. Of these, the Portuguese, after a brief but splendid career, sank from absolute incapacity for the performance of the task which they had set themselves.

Ch. vii. § 4. The Dutch followed them; but the decay of their fortunes in Europe prevented the permanent success of their schemes in India.

Ch. vii., viii. The English and the French alone remained; and, in the middle of the eighteenth century, it seemed uncertain which of these two races was to govern India.

Ch. ix. The genius of Clive, who did what Albuquerque and Dupleix had failed to do, mainly decided the question in favour of England.

Ch. viii. The year 1760 saw the irretrievable ruin of the French in India.

Ch. v. § 70. The next year is the date of the disabling blow that fell on the Mahrattas at Pânipat.

Ch. ix. From 1757 to 1765 Britain, chiefly under Clive's guidance, advanced by rapid steps to sovereign power in the East.

Ch. x. A series of British Governors-General, beginning with the illustrious Warren Hastings, were thenceforth the foremost men in India. Their line of seventeen proconsuls ranges grandly in history over against that of the seventeen great Mogul Emperors.

Yet England did not become the paramount power in India without a long series of severe struggles.

There were the wars in the Carnatic with the French, from 1744 to 1761; in Bengâl with Surâja Daula, and other Muhammadan Nuwâbs, from 1757 to 1765, including the glorious ten months in 1765 on the banks of the Ganges; the four Mahratta wars, in the course of which the Mogul Emperor, Shâh Âlam II., was released from Mahratta thraldom, and placed under British protection, and every single Mahratta leader suffered a signal overthrow, which momentous struggles lasted from 1775 to 1819; the four Mysôr wars, in which the short-lived but vigorous Muhammadan usurpation in Seringapatam was extinguished, and the ancient Hindû Râj restored under the auspices of Britain; the war with Nîpal; two wars with Birma, which transferred the whole sea-board of further India to the sway of England; the lamentable struggle in Afghânistân*; the war in which the Amîrs of Sind were rudely stript of their dominions; the brief but bloody episode of the Gwâliôr struggle; the two Panjâb wars, in which was subjugated the land of the five rivers, where all other conquerors began their conquests: these are the chief of the conquests which England has come forth triumphant. The sad history of the "Sepoy Mutiny," in which England had finally to conquer its own rebellious army, and in the course of which the last of the Moguls, and the sole surviving, and most unworthy, representative of the Peshwâs were swept away; and which ended in the assumption by the British Crown of the direct government of India, which until then had been under the administration of the ever-

Ch. vii., viii. Ch. ix.

Ch. v. § 90-166.

Ch. xii.

Ch. x.

* 1879. The time has not come for more than a reference to the second Afghân war, with its second massacre.

memorable British East-India Company, closes the eventful history. The romance of Indian history is over. No such wonderful histories as those of Sivajî, Ranjît Sing, and Haidar can repeat themselves in this land, now resting itself, after the struggles of a thousand years. May future historians record that in 1859 her millenium of peace and prosperity began!

The student's attention may be drawn, with propriety, to one or two inferences.

(1.) It will be discerned, that, while in many cases the English have appeared as the liberators of oppressed races, in none have they overthrown a dominion that had existed before their own advent in the East, and which could be called a legitimate and ancient Hindû dominion. The only really ancient states of India which were in existence in the beginning of the eighteenth century, those of Râjpûtâna and of Mysôr, are in being still, and owe their continuance to British protection. This is a fact which the student should minutely examine and verify for himself.

(Comp. ch. xii. § 46.)

(2.) The rise and progress of British rule in the East has been what may be termed *spontaneous*.

Every step has been taken with reluctance, and under the pressure of that imperious necessity which Clive was the first to feel: the last battle was but the necessary corollary of the first.

(3.) It can hardly be necessary to do more than to direct the attention of the student to the circumstance, that many of England's greatest statesmen and bravest warriors have been concerned in the establishment, guidance, and defence of this Anglo-Indian empire.

May it not safely be affirmed, that the annals of the world afford no examples of constancy, prudence, and fortitude more illustrious than those which shine forth in the pages of British Indian history? Hence the value and importance of this study.

(4.) And, lastly, if the provinces of India at any period during the last ten centuries, have enjoyed peace, or had any assured hope of development and progress; it has been only as, one after another, they have come under the dominion or protection of Great Britain. Is it not evident that India now beholds the dawn of a brighter day than she has ever yet seen? The analogy of history, and a consideration of the laws which seem to govern human affairs, forbid the expectation that the forms of Indian national life which have passed away should ever reappear. There is no second life for decayed civilisations and nationalities. No Râma will arise to reign, as in ancient fable, over the fifty-six Hindû nations; and Musalmân conquerors have had their day.

From shadowy and misleading phantoms of Hindû independence we must turn away our eyes.

The subjects of the "Empress of India" are admitted to share the responsibilities and rewards of high office in the Anglo-Indian Empire; and, if no fusion of races is probable, or even possible, nevertheless, in the highest sense, India and her rulers may be, and must be, ONE.

India's life in future must be identified with that of the PARAMOUNT POWER; and we trust that Great Britain has fully recognised, and is conscientiously striving to fulfil, in no selfish spirit, the duties which her guardianship of India involves.

If these pages shall help the student to estimate aright his own duties, and to endeavour, in his measure, to help forward the great and necessary work of assimilating more and more these Eastern dominions of the Queen to the most favoured regions of the West in all that is helpful and excellent, they will not have been written in vain.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS ON INDIAN HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY.

INTRODUCTION.

I.—1. Fix the positions of Dondra Head, Singapore, Peshâwar, and the Salwîn. § 1, 2.

2. Draw a sketch map of Bengâl, indicating round it the districts under the same administration. § 8.

3. What is to be observed regarding Sikhim, Munnipûr, and Tipperah? § 8.

4. Draw a sketch map of the course of the Ganges from Patna to Hardwâr, putting in all the places of importance on its banks. § 9.

5. Draw a sketch map of the Panjâb territory, exhibiting its ten divisions. § 10.

6. Give a diagram showing the relative positions of the capitals of the six tributary states of Central India. § 12.

7. Where is Bandêlkhand? Give the chief states in it. § 12.

8. What are called the Central Provinces? What rivers have their rise there? § 13.

9. Fix the sites of the chief sea-ports of British Birma, and mention some particulars about them. § 15.

10. What dependent Râjas are there in the Madras Presidency? Give a few facts regarding the territory of each of them. § 16.

II.—1. Mention the founders of Herât, the fort of Attock, Madras, Indôr, Aurungâbâd, and Bîjanagar. (Comp. Geog. Index.)

2. What French settlements are there in India? Give their positions. § 17.

3. What Portuguese settlements are there in India? Fix their positions. § 19. Ch. vi.

4. Draw a sketch map of the Madras Presidency, inserting the chief town of each collectorate. § 16.

5. Draw a sketch map of the Bombay Presidency, inserting the chief place of each district. § 18.

6. What *feudatories* are there within the limits of the Bombay Presidency? § 18.

7. Draw a sketch map of Berâr. How did it come under British management? § 20.

8. Give the dates and circumstances of the acquisition of any six portions of territory by the English. § 23.

9. Give any six feudatories of Britain in India, and fix the position and extent of their states. § 24, 25.

10. What boon did Lord Canning confer on these feudatory chiefs? Ch. x. § 187.

*** *Put dates to everything throughout.*

CHAPTER I., &c.

III.—1. When does real Indian history begin? § 1.
2. Which are the most ancient Hindû books? § 2.
3. Distinguish the Vêdic system of religion from that of the Purânas. § 2, 10.
4. Enumerate the chief Sanskrit compositions. § 2, 6, 7, 13, 14.
5. Which are the four great Hindû castes? How has the system of caste been modified? § 4.
6. What do you mean by village communities? § 4.
7. What tracts of country were called respectively Brahmâvarta and Brahmarshidêsa? What are they remarkable for? § 5.
8. Give an account of the "Institutes of Manu." § 3, 4.
9. What is recorded concerning Râma? Where is his history given? § 6.
10. What is the subject of the Mahâ Bhârata? § 7.

CHAPTER I., &c.

IV.—1. What is the legend regarding Krishṇa? § 7.
2. What Kings of Magadha are important in history? § 8.
3. When and where did Buddhism originate? § 8, 11.
4. What king was the distinguished patron of Buddhism. § 8 (5), § 11.
5. Who was Sankara Âchârya? § 11.
6. What is known regarding the sage Agastya? Ch. iv. § 3.
7. Give an account of the Jain system. § 12; ch. iv. § 5.
8. Who was Parasu Râma? Ch. iv. § 8.
9. What is the Vêdânta system of philosophy? § 15.
10. What do you mean by the Periplûs? Ch. iv. § 14.

CHAPTER I., &c.

V.—1. What invasions of India are mentioned as having taken place before the birth of Christ? § 16–20.
2. Which of these are of no historical importance? § 16, 17.
3. Give an account of the ancient Persian invasion. § 18.
4. Give a detailed account of Alexander's expedition to India. § 19.
5. Give an account of Herât. § 19; ch. x. § 110, G.
6. Write a summary of the history of the Greek kingdom of Bactria. § 19, 20.
7. Who were Skylax and Nearchus? § 18, 19.
8. Who were the contemporaries of Chandragupta? § 20.
9. What are the æras of Vikramâditya and Sâlivâhana? § 9, 23.
10. Draw a sketch map of the Panjâb proper, inserting the Greek names. § 19, 20.

CHAPTER II., &c.

The Pre-Mogul Muhammadan History.

VI.—1. Give the names of the first six Muhammadan invaders of India. Ch. ii. table.
2. Draw a sketch map of Trans-Oxiana. Ch. ii. § 5.
3. Enumerate the Muhammadan dynasties in Delhi before Bâber. Ch. ii. table.
4. Write a detailed life of Jeipâl I. Ch. ii. § 6, 7; xi. § 12.
5. Fix the situations of Batinda, Nâgarkôt, and Tanêshwar. Give some account of each of these places. Ch. ii. § 7, 8, 16; xi. § 8.
6. Why is the tenth expedition of Mahmûd of Ghaznî very important? Ch. ii. § 10.
7. Give some account of Anhalwâra. Ch. ii. § 11, 32.
8. Who were Firdousî, Khâfî Khân, Kâlidâsa, and Ferishta? Where and when did they live? Ch. ii. § 12; iii. § 9; i. § 13; iv. § 23.
9. Three Beirâms (Beyram) are mentioned in this history; give some account of each. Ch. ii. § 15, 26; iii. § 6.
10. Who were respectively called the Burner of the World, and the Sanguinary? Why? Ch. ii. § 15, 32.

CHAPTER III., &c.

1556–1605.

VII.—1. Write a list of the Mogul Emperors in three sections—the great ones, the nominal ones, and the mere pensioners. § 2.
2. Write a life of Sultân Bâber. § 3.
3. Recount the great struggle of the Râjpûts for empire. § 3 (12).
4. Write a life of Humâyûn. § 4, 5.
5. Give a summary of the history of the Sûr dynasty. § 5.
6. Divide Akbar's life into six periods, and state the chief events in each. § 6.
7. Draw a sketch map, showing the eighteen Subâhs into which his empire was divided. § 6.
8. Give an account of the two sieges of Ahmadnagar in this reign. § 6.
9. State a few particulars regarding—(1.) Akbar's guardian; (2.) his brother-in-law; (3.) his sons; (4.) his chief friends; (5.) his chief opponents. § 6.
10. What are his chief claims to be considered an exceedingly great ruler? § 6.

CHAPTER III., &c.

1605–1707.

VIII.—1. Write a sketch of Jehângîr's history. § 7.
2. Give a brief account of his queen, and of his great general, Muhâbat Khân. § 7.
3. Write an account of Sir T. Roe's embassy to his court. § 7.
4. What events occurred in 1626–27? § 7.
5. Divide Shâh Jehân's life into three periods, and give a summary of the events of each. § 7, 8, 9.
6. What Portuguese affair is important in this reign? § 8.
7. Give a brief account of each of Shâh Jehân's children. § 8.
8. Divide Aurungzîb's life into four periods, and give a short account of the events of each portion. § 9.
9. Compare his character and policy with those of Akbar. § 9.
10. Who was Jeswant Sing? What is known of him? § 9.

AURUNGZÎB. (Ch. iii. § 8, 9.)

1658–1707.

IX.—1. Give a summary of Aurungzîb's career before 1658. Ch. iii. § 8 (7, 9).
2. What gave him an advantage over his brothers?
3. Give details of his treacherous conduct to his relatives.
4. How did he behave—(1.) to Sivajî; (2.) to Sambajî; (3.) to Sâhu?
5. Who were his great generals?
6. In what way did Jeswant Sing act, and how did Aurungzîb behave to him and his?
7. What places are most connected with his history?
8. Who were his sons? Trace their history to 1707.
9. How did Aurungzîb differ essentially from Akbar?
10. What conquests did he achieve in the Dakhan?

AURUNGZÎB—*Continued.*

X.—1. Wherein was he impolitic?
2. What connection had he with the English?
3. Who was the historian of the time? His history?
4. What circumstances led to the immediate break-up of the Mogul power in 1707?
5. When did he become Emperor *de facto*, and when *de jure*?
6. Draw a sketch map, putting in all the places referred to in the summary. § 9 (19).
7. Had the limits of the empire extended from 1658 to 1707?
8. Was there anything in English history to parallel the bigotry of Aurungzîb about the same time?
9. What peculiarity of his character most hindered his success?
10. What was the real result of his policy in the Dakhan?

CHAPTER III. § 10, 11; VII.

1707–1713.

XI.—1. Give an account of the SEVENTH Mogul Emperor.
2. Who was the EIGHTH Mogul Emperor, and who was his supporter? What was their fate?
3. Give an account of the Dutch East India Company to 1700.
4. Give a brief summary of the early history of the French in India to 1725.
5. What places did the Danes occupy?
6. Give an account of the English factories in India to 1700.
7. What especial circumstances in reference to the English East India Company are to be referred to the reigns of Shâh Jehân and Farukhshîr?
8. What places around the coast were in European occupation in 1725?
9. Which Mahratta leaders were contemporaries of Zulfikâr Khân?
10. What was the state of affairs at that period in Mysôr, the Panjâb, and in Delhi?

CHAPTER III.

1713–1748.

XII.—1. Who were the Barha Seiads? Ch. iii. § 12·(2).
2. What Emperors did they set up, and whom did they depose?
3. Who were their great rivals? § 15.
4. What treaty did one of them make with a Mahratta leader, and what were its results?
5. How were they overthrown?
6. Give a sketch of the history of Zulfikâr Khân. Ch. iii. § 11.
7. What circumstances are worthy of note connected with the marriage of Farukhshîr? Ch. iii. § 12.
8. What did the Sikhs suffer under the government of these Seiads? § 12.
9. Give some account of Âsaph Jâh.
10. And of Sâdat Khân.

CHAPTER III. § 12–19.

XIII.—1. Give an account of affairs in Delhi from 1719 to 1738.
2. What was the occasion, and what the result, of the battle of Shâhpûr? § 15.
3. Give a short sketch of the history of the Nizâms of Haidarâbâd.
4. What provinces became virtually independent during the reign of Muhammad Shâh? Who were his great Omrahs?
5. What was the history of the battle of Sirhind?
6. Write a short account of Nâdir Shâh.
7. Who was Alî Vardî Khân?
8. Give the history of AHMAD SHÂH, the Emperor.
9. Write an account of AHMAD SHÂH ABDÂLÎ.
10. Give the life of Ghâzî-ud-dîn (IV.), grandson of Nizâm-ul-Mulk.

CHAPTER III. § 20–23.

XIV.—1. How did the Mahrattas get a footing in Delhi? when did they, for a time, lose it? when regain it? and when did they finally lose it?
2. Who was Gholâm Kâdir?
3. Give the names of the last two Moguls, and a particular or two about them.
4. In 1757 what was the state of affairs in all the principal centres of political life in India?
5. Which Mogul Emperors were fugitives? which were assassinated? which were mere puppets? which did most to establish the empire? and which most hastened its downfall?
6. Who were the Rohillas?
7. Which Emperor met Clive, and under what circumstances?
8. How many times, and by whom, was Delhi taken between 1206 and 1803?
9. Who were the descendants of Ahmad Shâh Abdâlî?
10. Which six battles were most important in the Mogul history?

CHAPTERS IV. AND V., &c.

XV.—1. Draw a sketch map of the Mahratta country. Ch. v. § 2–4.
2. What do we know of the Mahratta people before the rise of Sivajî? Ch. iv. § 14, 15.
3. How have the hill-forts been connected with Mahratta history? Ch. v. § 5, 9, 11, 18, 21, 22.
4. Give a brief account of Sivajî's ancestors. Ch. v. § 9.
5. Trace the history of the Mahratta dominion in the Carnatic. Ch. v. § 7, 17, 23, 24, 55, 108. (See Tanjore.)
6. Give a short life of the great Sivajî. Ch. v. § 9–26.
7. State precisely the position of the various kingdoms of the Dakhan in 1627. Ch. iv. § 23–29; vi. § 20.
8. Give an account of Sivajî's conduct towards Afzal Khân and Shayista Khân. Ch. v. § 14–16.
9. In what matters did Sivajî come into contact with the English. Ch. v. § 17–22; vii. § 6.
10. Compare Sivajî with Hyder Alî. Why was the success of the former more complete than that of the latter?

CHAPTER V., &c.

XVI.—1. What is remarkable about the history of Shayista Khân?
2. Give an account of Sivajî's successor. § 27–32.
3. Distinguish between Râja Râm and Râm Râj. § 27–29.
4. Write a life of Râja Sâhu. § 33–59.
5. What was the state of affairs among the Mahrattas from 1683 to 1707? § 30–37.
6. Who was Bâlâjî Vishwanâth? Give an account of the transactions with. § 40–42.
7. Explain the terms *Chout* and *Surdêshmukhî*. § 42.
8. Write a life of the second Peshwâ. § 44–53.
9. Name the principal Mahratta leaders who rose to eminence about 1724. Which of these founded independent states? § 45.
10. Give an account of the origin of the Kolhâpûr state. § 47.

CHAPTERS V., VII., VIII.

1740–1748.

XVII.—1. Give a sketch of the chief states in India in 1740. Ch. v. § 53.
2. Write an account of Chandâ Sahêb.
3. Who were the great French leaders in the Carnatic during this period?
4. Give an account of the first battle of Ambûr.
5. Exhibit the dynasty of Anwâr-ud-dîn in a table. Ch. viii. § 7.
6. What sons of Nizâm-ul-Mulk were alive when he died?
7. Give an account of the first siege of Madras. Ch. viii. § 4.
8. What powers existed in India in 1748? Ch. viii. § 14.
9. Write an account of Bâlâjî Bâjî Rao. Ch. v. § 56–71.
10. Give a slight sketch of six important persons who died in or about 1748.

CHAPTERS V.–IX.

1748–1765.

XVIII.—1. Who was Ragobâ? Give a sketch of his history. Ch. v. § 63.
2. Who was Clive? Trace his whole Indian career briefly.
3. Give an outline of events that led to the battle of Plassey. Ch. ix. § 6–10.
4. What brought about the conflict between the Mahrattas and Ahmad Shâh Abdâlî? Ch. v. § 68.
5. Give an account of the $\left(\frac{\text{second}}{\text{fourth}}\right)$ battle of Pânipat. (1761.) Ch. v. § 68.
6. Write a summary of affairs in Bengâl during 1765.
7. Who destroyed the French power in the Carnatic? Trace its decline from 1748 to 1760. Ch. viii. § 15–32.
8. Who were the rival Nuwâbs of Arcot? Discuss their claims.
9. Who were the rival Subâdârs of the Dakhan? Give their history.
10. Write an account of Bussy. Ch. viii. § 18.

CHAPTERS V.–IX.

1765–1782.

XIX.—1. Write a life of Warren Hastings. Ch. ix. § 34 to x. § 14.
2. Give a sketch of the history of Nânâ Farnavîs. Ch. v. § 70, 73–119.
3. Give an outline of the history of the life and times of Mâdu Râo, the fourth Peshwâ. Ch. v. § 72.
4. What caused the first Mahratta war? Ch. v. § 90, 91.
5. Who was Goddard? Give an account of his services. Ch. v. § 96–102.
6. Give a summary of the history of the English in Bengâl from 1765 to 1782.
7. What was the Convention of Wargâom? Ch. v. § 97.
8. State the particulars of the treaty of Salbâî. Ch. v. § 102.
9. Give an account of the Indôr State from its rise to 1780.
10. What do we know of any Governors of Madras and Bombay during this period?

1782–1800.

XX.—1. Write a full account of Mahâdajî Sindia. Ch. v. § 77–110.
2. Give an account of the battle of Kûrdlâ. Ch. v. § 114.
3. Write a life of the Marquis Cornwallis. Ch. x. § 18.
4. What was the permanent settlement? Ch. x. § 23.
5. Give an abstract of the history of the fifth and sixth Peshwâs. Ch. v. § 83–87.
6. State the more important matters connected with Lord Teignmouth's administration. Ch. x. § 29.
7. What are the chief features of the English legislation for India between 1783 and 1793, both dates being included? Ch. x. § 15–28.
8. What Presidents of the "Board of Control" have been celebrated in history?
9. State fully all you know about the Treaty of Bassein. Ch. v. § 123.
10. Give a summary of the state of affairs at all the principal places in India in 1800.

CHAPTERS V.–X.

1800–1805.

(Ch. xii. § 58; xi. § 25.)

XXI.—1. Write an account of the Marquess of Wellesley's Indian administration. Ch. x. § 34–48.

2. What is the system which is called the *Subsidiary System?* Ch. x. § 36–40.

3. What circumstances caused the nineteenth century to open with favourable auspices to Great Britain in India? Ch. x. § 42, 43; v. § 121; xii. § 56.

4. Give an account of Jeswant Râo Holkâr. Ch. v. § 118–140.

5. Give a slight sketch of the life of Daulat Râo Sindia. Ch. v. § 110–161.

6. What destroyed the Mahratta confederation? Ch. v. § 139.

7. Give an account of the second Mahratta war. Ch. v. § 124–136.

8. What were the provisions of the treaty of Dêogâom? Ch. v. § 134.

9. What were the provisions of the treaty of Sirjî Anjengâom? Ch. v. § 135.

10. Give a summary of the third Mahratta war. Ch. v. § 137.

1805–1819.

XXII.—1. Give some account of Sir Barry Close, Sir John Malcolm, Sir C. Metcalfe, Mr. M. Elphinstone, and Sir T. Munro.

2. Write a brief history of Bâjî Râo II. Ch. v. § 116.

3. Give, in a table, the battles of the fourth Mahratta or Pindârî war.

4. State a few particulars regarding Trimbuckjî, Appâ Sahêb, Amîr Khân, Chitû, Ghâtgê, Gôkla.

5. Give the sequel of the history of the Râjas of Satârâ. Ch. v. § 164.

6. Who were the Pindârîs? Ch. v. § 148.

7. Which were the principal hill-forts taken from the Mahrattas, to 1819, by the English? Ch. v. § 165.

8. Give an account of the Tanjore Mahratta Râj from its foundation. Ch. x. § 44.

9. State briefly the main circumstances connected with the Nuwâbs of the Carnatic from 1760 to 1801.

10. Give a short history of Sir G. Barlow's career as acting Governor-General, and as Governor of Màdras. Ch. x. § 53–59.

CHAPTERS X. § 53–78.

1805–1823.

XXIII.—1. What may be said for and against the "Non-intervention Policy" in India? § 53, 54.
2. Give an account of the Vellore Mutiny. § 55.
3. Write a summary of Travancore history. § 61–64.
4. State a few particulars about the Cochin state. § 64.
5. Where are Mauritius and Bourbon important in Indian history? § 66.
6. Give a sketch of Lord Minto's embassies. § 67–69.
7. Write a summary of the Marquis of Hastings' Indian administration. § 73–77.
8. What was the cause of the Nîpal war? How did it end? § 74.
9. Write a short account of General Sir D. Ochterlony's services. § 74.
10. Who was Mr. Adam, and what did he do? § 78.

CHAPTER X. § 78–105.

XXIV.—1. Give an account of the first Birmese war. § 79.
2. What territory did England acquire by the treaty of Yendabû? § 79.
3. What mutinies, European and native, have taken place in the armies of England in India?
4. Give an account of Bhartpûr. § 81.
5. What rendered Lord W. C. Bentinck's administration remarkable? § 87.
6. Give a summary of Kûrg history. § 90.
7. What is Thuggism? Who was most successful in its suppression? § 95.
8. Give a short account of the Bhôpâl state.
9. What changes were made in the Company's charter in 1833? § 103.
10. What did Sir C. Metcalfe do as acting Governor-General? Discuss its propriety. § 105.

CHAPTER X. § 106–111.

XXV.—1. Who were the rulers of Afghânistân from 1760 to 1840? § 110.
2. Give the descent of Shâh Shuja. § 110.
3. Write an account of Dôst Muhammad.
4. Draw a sketch map of Afghânistân, showing the chief places celebrated in the war.
5. Was the expedition wise or foolish? Why? § 110.
6. How did E. Pottinger, Sale, Nott, and Dennie distinguish themselves?
7. Give an account of the Kâbul disasters. § 110.
8. Why was the garrison of Jellâlâbâd called illustrious? § 116.
9. What do you know about Dôst Muhammad's "fighting" son?
10. Give an account of the results of the Afghân expedition.

CHAPTER X. § 112–136.

XXVI.—1. How many wars with China are mentioned? What have been the results?
2. What mistakes did the Earl of Ellenborough make as Governor-General?
3. What was the cause of the Gwâliôr troubles? § 124.
4. What two battles were then fought, and what was their result? § 124.
5. How was Sind then governed? § 125.
6. What was the occasion of the British war with Sind?
7. What battles were fought in this war?
8. What were the chief characteristics of Lord Hardinge as Governor-General? § 132, 133.
9. What had been done by the British armies between 1843–1846?
10. What was done in Gûmsûr and adjacent districts at this period? § 133.

CHAPTER X. § 137–183.

XXVII.—1. What annexations took place in the Earl of Dalhousie's time?
2. Give a summary of the second Birmese war. § 140.
3. The years 1848–1856 were years of great *progress*. Illustrate this.
4. What change in the Company's charter was made in 1853? § 145.
5. What were the chief events of Lord Canning's administration?
6. What was the origin and the result of the second Persian war? § 155.
7. Give an account of the exploits of Sir James Outram and Sir Herbert Edwardes. § 156.
8. Give a sketch of the histories of Sir Henry Lawrence and of Sir J. Lawrence, before he was Governor-General.
9. Distinguish between "epidemic" and "endemic" civilisation.
10. Give a sketch of the principal events of the "Sepoy mutiny." § 159–183.

CHAPTER X. § 161–183.

XXVIII.—1. Who were the principal traitors in 1857? § 163, 164.
2. Who were the great heroes of that rebellion?
3. What native princes were especially loyal to the paramount power?
4. What arrangements were made in 1858 for the government of British India? § 185.
5. Give an abstract of the Queen's proclamation. § 186.
6. What is the "patent of nobility?" § 187.
7. Give a list of the Governors-General. § 192.
8. Select the four greatest, and give reasons for your selection.
9. Who were the most eminent of the Acting Governors-General?
10. What great calamities have befallen the English in India from 1756 to the present?

CHAPTER XI. (X.)

XXIX.—1. The Panjâb has been the battle-field of Afghâns, Moguls, and Hindûs. Illustrate this. § 1.
2. Give a sketch of the geography of this province. § 2.
3. Give the history of Mûltân in detail. § 37.
4. How many invaders have passed the Attock?
5. Which are the Cis-Satlaj states? § 8.
6. What Governors-General have had most to do with Panjâb affairs, and how?
7. Write a history of the rise and progress of the Sîkhs to 1809. § 22–24.
8. Give a life of Ranjît Sing in detail. § 25.
9. Enumerate the various rulers of the Panjâb from the earliest times. § 9–23.
10. Trace the descent of Dhulip Sing. § 27.

CHAPTER XI.

XXX.—1. Who were Mûlrâj, Lâl Sing, Golâb Sing, and Chând Kowr? § 35, 36.
2. Give in detail the history of the first Panjâb war. § 29.
3. And of the second Panjâb war. § 40.
4. Mention the chief military men connected with the two Panjâb wars.
5. How has the Panjâb been administered since its annexation? § 45.
6. What is the meaning of the word *Sîkh*, of *Khâlsâ*, of *Misl*, and of *Sing* or *Singh*? § 22.
7. Justify the annexation of the Panjâb. § 44.
8. What great engineering works have been carried out there?
9. What is now the north-west frontier of British India?
10. Give a sketch of the history of Kâshmîr from the earliest times.

CHAPTER XII.

XXXI.—1. Draw a sketch map of Mysôr, putting in all the places mentioned in the chapter. Comp. Intro. § 14.
2. For what are Manzerâbâd, Dêonhalli, Bednûr, and Mangalôr remarkable? § 1, 11, 14, 20, 36.
3. Who were the ancient sovereigns of the Karnâtaka country, and what was their capital? § 2.
4. Mention the six most important kings of the old Hindû dynasty, and give one particular regarding each. § 2–12.
5. Trace the history of the city of Seringapatam from 1565–1799.
6. What dealings with the Mahrattas had Chick Dêo Râj? § 8.
7. What analogy do you trace between Mysôr and Mahratta history? § 9.
8. Give a short history of the life of Haidar Alî. § 13.
9. What events happened in 1749, 1760, 1769, 1780, 1782?
10. What part did Warren Hastings take in Mysôr affairs? § 26–29.

CHAPTER XII.

XXXII.—1. How was Sir Eyre Coote connected with Mysôr affairs? Give a sketch of his services. Ch. viii., ix., xii. § 28.
2. Give a short account of Flint Baillie, and Matthews.
3. What were the respective issues of the two battles of Pollilore? § 27, 29.
4. Give a sketch of Colonel Smith's exploits. § 17–21.
5. What was Haidar's great complaint against the English in 1772? § 22.
6. Give particulars of any transactions with the Mahrattas in which Haidar was worsted. § 15, 22.
7. Give a summary of the second Mysôr war. § 27.
8. How did Haidar and Tippû treat Kûrg? § 23, 37.
9. Write a short life of Tippû Sultân. § 33–56.
10. What was the state of Mahratta affairs at the date of the death of Haidar?

CHAPTER XII.

XXXIII.—1. Give particulars of the four treaties made by the English with the Mysôreans. § 21, 36, 44, 56, 60.
2. What did the Marquis Cornwallis accomplish in regard to Mysôr?
3. How was the Marquis Wellesley concerned with Mysôr affairs?
4. What battles preceded the final siege of Seringapatam?
5. Give a sketch of Hartley's history from the Convention of Wargâom to 1799.
6. How did Tippû resemble Jûna Khân Tughlâk?
7. Give a short account of each member of the commission that settled Mysôr affairs in 1799.
8. Write a life of the late Râja of Mysôr.
9. What Mahratta chieftains were alive in 1799?
10. Give an account of three persons from whom Tippû sought aid. § 47, 50.

GENERAL.

XXXIV.—1. Compare Albuquerque, Clive, and Dupleix, as to their Indian careers.
2. What wars has England waged in India?
3. Enumerate all the massacres that occur in British Indian history.
4. What is the general impression produced on your mind as to the results of Muhammadan rule in India?
5. What was the great fault of the French in India?
6. What innovations has England made in religious matters in India? Defend them.
7. What campaign was the most trying to England, and why?
8. Which Governor-General displayed the greatest genius? Defend your answer.
9. What great wrongs have been committed by English rulers in India?
10. What powers were in existence in India in 1650?

CHAPTER VI.

1498–1656.

XXXV.—1. Trace the progress of Portuguese maritime discovery from 1420 to 1500. § 1–5.

2. Write a summary of the state of affairs in India in 1498. § 3.

3. Who was De Gâmâ's patron? his opponents? his crimes? what is his great glory? § 2, 4, 6.

4. Give a summary of the Indian career of (1) Cabral; (2) Duarte Pacheco; (3) Soarez. § 2–9.

5. Write a life of the first and second Portuguese viceroys. § 10–14.

6. What sieges are of importance in Indo-Portuguese history? Relate briefly their histories. § 8, 12, 16–18, 19, 20.

7. When and with what result did the Portuguese come into contact with the Mahrattas? Ch. v. § 30, 51.

8. What was the nature of the Portuguese dominion in the East? How far did it extend? § 15.

9. Relate the circumstances under which the Portuguese came into contact with the rulers of Gujarât. § 10, 16–18.

10. Trace the decline and fall of Portuguese power in the East. § 20, 21.

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLES OF INDIAN HISTORY.

NOTE 1. This table is intended to connect the several parts of the History. The student should practise himself in writing out all the events in every part of India, in any given year or period.

2. The most important dates are marked (*).

I. PRE-HISTORIC TIMES. Ch. i. iv.

B.C.		
1400	Arrangement of the Vêdas by VYÂSA .	Ch. i. § 2.
1400–1300	The war of the Mahâ Bhârata. *Sahâ Dêva*	Ch. i. § 7, 8.
1308	Invasion of India by Sesostris (mythical)	Ch. i. § 17.
1200	RÂMA'S invasion of the Dakhan . .	Ch. i. § 6.
800	The date of MENU	Ch. i. § 3.
700	AGASTYA in the South	Ch. iv. § 3.
543	Ajâta Satru. Death of GÔTAMA, or SÂKYA MUNI	Ch. i. § 8, 11.

II. SEMI-HISTORIC PERIOD, FROM THE INVASION OF THE PANJAB BY THE PERSIANS TO THE RISE OF THE GHAZNÎVIDES, B.C. 518–A.D. 978.

Compare Ch. iv. with Ch. i.

B.C.		
518	Persian invasion under DARIUS HYSTASPES	Ch. i. § 18.
400–500	PÂNDYA kingdom of Madura founded .	Ch. iv. § 5.
330	HERÂT founded by Alexander . .	Ch. i. § 19.
326	Invasion of the Panjâb by Alexander the Great	Ch. i. § 19.
315	CHANDRA-GUPTA, or Sandracottus . .	Ch. i. § 8, 20.
260–220	AsÔKA, or Piyadâsi, the great patron of Buddhism	Ch. i. § 8.
249	The Buddhist Council	Ch. i. § 11.
126	Tartars from Trans-Oxiana conquer the Bactrian kingdom	Ch. i. § 20.
57	VIKRAMÂDITYA, King of Ûjein . .	Ch. i. § 9.

II.	Indian History.	
A.D.		
78	SÂLIVÂHANA, King of Paithan	Ch. i. § 9.
214	Tanjore founded	Ch. iv. § 5.
327–473	YÂVANAS in Orissa	Ch. iv. § 13.
524	Noushîrvân	Ch. iii. § 6 (12).
600	The JAIN system founded	Ch. i. § 12.
700–800	SANKARA ÂCHÂRYA	Ch. i. § 11.
1050	KÛNA PÂNDYA in Madura	Ch. iv. § 5.

III. THE PRE-MOGUL MUHAMMADAN PERIOD: FROM THE BEGINNING OF AUTHENTIC NATIONAL HISTORY IN INDIA TO 1526. AFGHÂNS, BÂHMINI, TEIMÛR, BÎJANAGAR, MYSÔR, GOA.

[See Ch. ii. Introductory Table.]

A.D.		
878–1186	The Ghaznîvides	Ch. ii. § 1–15.
1009	Râmânuja born	Ch. iv. § 9.
*1022	*LÂHÔR becomes a Muhammadan city*	Ch. ii. § 10.
1152	Sack of Ghaznî by *Alâ-ud-dîn Ghôrî*	Ch. ii. § 15.
1186–1206	MUHAMMAD OF GHÔR	Ch. ii. § 16.
1100–1200	Basava	Ch. iv. § 11.
*1206–1288	The first slave dynasty in Delhi. (KUTB-UD-DÎN.)	Ch. ii. § 18–30.
1217	GHENGÎZ KHÂN. First Mogul irruption	Ch. ii. § 22.
1288–1321	The Khiljis	Ch. ii. § 31–33.
*1294	*The first Muhammadan invasion of the Dakhan*	Ch. ii. § 31. Ch. iv. § 16.
1306, 1309, 1310, 1312	*Malik Kâfûr's* invasions of the Dakhan	Ch. iv. § 17; xii. § 2.
1318	Malabâr conquered by Khûsrû	Ch. iv. § 18.
1321–1412	The TUGHLAKS	Ch. ii. § 34–44.
1323	*Warangal* taken by the Muhammadans	Ch. iv. § 12.
1336	BÎJANAGAR founded	Ch. iv. § 19.
*1347	Foundation of the BÂHMINÎ kingdom in the Dakhan, till 1526	Ch. ii. § 36; iv. § 20, 21.
*1398	TEIMÛR in Delhi. Second great Mogul expedition	Ch. iv. § 21; ii. § 43.
1482	Bâber	Ch. iii. § 3; iv. § 21.
1486	Bartholomew Diaz	Ch. vi. § 2.
1494		Ch. iii. § 3.

A.D.		
*1498	VASCO DE GÂMA in Calicut	Ch. iv. § 23; ii. § 47. Ch. vi. § 2.
1489–1526	The Bâhmanî kingdom breaks up. BÎJAPÛR kingdom founded	Ch. iv. § 21, 23.
1500	Cabral in Calicut	Ch. vi. § 5; ii. § 47; iv. § 21.
1504	*Duarte Pachecho in Cochin*	Ch. iii. § 3; vi. § 8.
1505–1508	FRANCISCO ALMEYDA, the first Portuguese viceroy	Ch. iv. § 21; vi. § 10.
1507	*Châm Râj*, the six-fingered, in the Mysôr country	Ch. xii. § 3.
1508–1515	Alphonso ALBUQUERQUE, the second Portuguese viceroy	Ch. iv. § 21, 23; vi. § 12, 14.
1515	Lope Soarez, the third Portuguese viceroy	Ch. iii. § 3; vi. § 14.
1524	Châm Râj, the bald, founds the city of Mysôr	Ch. xii. § 4.

IV. MOGUL PERIOD. 1526 to 1746.

Twelve Mogul Emperors. (I.) The six great Moguls.

A.D.		
§ 1526	The (first great) battle of PÂNIPAT. BÂBER founds the Mogul empire in India. Mogul emperors. Lôdîs driven away	Ch. ii. § 47; iii. § 13.
	NANAK	Ch. xi. § 22.
1527	SÎKRI. The Râjpûts conquered	Ch. iii. § 3.
1528	Storming of CHANDÊRÎ	Ch. iii. § 3.
1529		Ch. iii. § 3 (13).
§ 1530	HUMÂYÛN, the second Mogul	Ch. iii. § 3, 4.
1535	*Champanîr* stormed	Ch. iii. § 4.
1538	The siege of *Diû*	Ch. vi. § 17.
1540	Restored Afghâns of the SÛR dynasty	Ch. iii. § 4.
1541	*Xavier* in India	Ch. vi. § 17.
1542	Birth of *Akbar*	Ch. iii. § 46.
1544		Ch. iii. § 4 (7).
1545	JUAN DE CASTRO, Portuguese viceroy	Ch. iii. § 4, 5; vi. § 18.
1555–1556	Return and death of Humâyûn	Ch. iii. § 5.
§ 1556	Accession of AKBAR, the third Mogul	Ch. iii. § 6.

A.D.		
1559	Nâyakar rulers of Madura till 1736	Ch. iv. § 6.
1560	Akbar, 18 years old, assumes the government	Ch. iii. § 6.
	The real Mogul conquest of India.	
	— 1567. Conquers his own *feudatories*	Ch. iii. § 6.
	— 1572. Subdues the *Râjpûts*	
	— 1573. Conquers *Gujarât*	
	— 1581. Fort of *Attock* built	
	— 1592. Annexes *Bengâl, Bahâr*, and *Orissa*	
	— 1592. Conquest of Sind	
	— 1594. Afghânistân subdued	
	— 1599-1601. Akbar in the Dakhan	
1565	The battle of Talikôt (Telli cotta)	Ch. iv. § 29.
1570	Dakhan Muhammadan confederacy against the Portuguese	Ch. vi. § 19.
1580	Foundation of OUDIPÛR	Ch. iii. § 6.
1580–1656	*Downfall of the Portuguese*	Ch. vi. § 20.
1581		Ch. iii. § 6; xi. § 20.
1583	The first ENGLISH in India	Ch. vii. § 6.
1589–1612	FERISHTA in Bîjapûr	Ch. iv. § 23.
1594	The *Dutch* in India	Ch. vii. § 3, 4.
1595–1599	Two sieges of *Ahmadnagar*. CHÂND BÎBÎ	Ch. iii. § 6.
1599	Synod of Diamper	Ch. iii. § 6 (20); vi. § 21.
1600	THE INCORPORATION OF THE BRITISH INDIA COMPANY	Ch. vii. § 6.
1603	Assassination of ÂB-UL-FAZL	Ch. iii. § 7.
§ 1605	Death of Akbar. JEHÂNGÎR, the fourth Mogul	Ch. iii. § 7.
1608	Hawkins in Sûrat	Ch. vii. § 6.
1610	Seringapatam became the capital of Mysôr	Ch. xii. § 6.
1611	Marriage of the emperor with NÛR JEHÂN. She died in 1646	Ch. iii. § 7: vii. § 6.
1615–1618	*Sir T. Roe*, ambassador	Ch. vii. § 6.
1626	Death of *Malik Ambar*	Ch. iii. § 7; iv. § 24.
§ *1627	Jehângîr's death. Accession of SHÂH JEHÂN, the fifth Mogul emperor	Ch. iii. § 8.
	Birth of SIVAJÎ	Ch. v. § 9.
1631	Portuguese driven out of Bengâl	Ch. iii. § 8.
1636	*Mr. Boughton* in Delhi	Ch. v. § 9; vii. § 6.
1637	Ahmadnagar taken by Shâh Jehân	Ch. iii. § 8; iv. § 24; v. § 7.

A.D.		
1640	MADRAS founded	Ch. iv. § 29.
1646	TORNEA	Ch. v. § 11.
1657	Civil war breaks out between the sons of the emperor	Ch. iii. § 8 (11).
1651	. . . . .	Ch. v. § 13.
1652	. . . . .	Ch. iii. § 8.
§ 1658	AURUNGZÎB, the sixth Mogul emperor, imprisons his father and seizes the empire	Ch. iii. § 8. (11, 12).
1659	*Tirumala Náyakan* died in Madura .	Ch. iv. § 6.
	Murder of *Afzal Khân*	Ch. v. § 14.
1662	. . . . .	Ch. v. § 15, 16.
1663	Sack of Sûrat	Ch. v. § 17; vii. § 6.
1664	FRENCH in India	Ch. v. § 17; vii. § 7.
1665	. . . . .	Ch. vii. § 6.
1666	Death of Shâh Jehân. Sivajî in Delhi .	Ch. v. § 19; iii. § 9.
1668	BOMBAY made over to the Company .	Ch. vii. § 6; v. § 20.
1670	. . . . .	Ch. v. § 21.
1673–1704	Chick Dêo Râj in Mysôr . . .	Ch. xii. § 8.
1674	Sivaji enthroned	Ch. v. § 22.
1675	SIKHS	Ch. iii. § 10 (5); xi. § 22.
1676	Sivajî in the Carnatic	Ch. v. § 23.
1678	. . . . .	Ch. iii. § 9.
1680	Death of Sivajî	Ch. v. § 26.
1683–1707	Aurungzîb's wars in the Dakhan . .	Ch. iii. § 9.
1686	*Bîjapûr* taken	Ch. iii. § 9.
1687	*Golconda* taken	Ch. iii. § 9.
1689	SAMBAJÎ, the second Mahratta Râja, slain by Aurungzîb	Ch. v. § 32.
1695	. . . . .	Ch. iii. § 9 (20).
1700	Aurungzîb in Satârâ	Ch. v. § 34.
1702	Birth of HAIDAR ALÎ of Mysôr . .	Ch. xii. § 13.
1706	. . . . .	Ch. iii. § 9.

II. The six lesser Moguls.

§ *1707	Death of Aurungzîb. Accession of SHÂH ÂLAM I., the seventh Mogul	Summary ch. iii. § 9 (19).
1708	Liberation of Sâhu	Ch. v. § 39.
§ 1712	JEHANDAR SHÂH, the eighth Mogul .	Ch. iii. § 10; v. § 39, 40.

	A.D.		
§	1713	The Seiads, Hussein and Abdullah Khân put Zulfikâr Khân and the emperor to death, and set up Farukhsiîr (1713–1719), the ninth Mogul .	Ch. iii. § 11, 12.
	1714	Bâlâjî Vishwanâth, the first great Peshwâ	Ch. v. § 40.
	1716	Gabriel *Hamilton* at the court of Farukhshîr	Ch. iii. § 12 (8).
		The Sîkhs almost exterminated . .	Ch. iii. § 12.
	1717	Mahrattas under Bâlâjî Vishwanâth in Delhi	Ch. v. § 42; iii. § 12.
§	1719	Two puppet emperors, Rafî-ud-darajât the tenth Mogul, and Rafî-ud-dowla, the eleventh Mogul. Muhammad Shâh, the twelfth Mogul, placed on the throne by the Seiads	Ch. iii. § 13–15.
	*1720	Battle of Shâhpûr. Muhammad Shâh is really emperor to 1748. Death of Bâlâjî Vishwanâth. Bâjî Râo I., the second Peshwâ	Ch. iii. § 15. Ch. v. § 43, 44.
	*1724	Nizâm-ul-Mulk and Sâdat Khân become virtually independent in the Dakhan and in Oudh respectively. *The great Mahratta chieftains rise to importance*	Ch. v. § 45.
	1725	Robert Clive born	Ch. ix. § 35.
	1727	. . . . .	Ch. v. § 46.
	1730	. . . . .	Ch. v. § 47.
	1732	Warren Hastings born	Ch. ix. § 35.
	1736	Chandâ Sahêb in Trichinopoly . .	Ch. vii. § 7.
	*1738	Invasion of Nâdir Shâh	Ch. v. § 50; iii. § 15.
	1739	*Bassein stormed by the Mahrattas* . .	Ch. v. § 51.
	*1740	The first battle of Ambûr. Death of Bâjî Râo I. He is succeeded by Bâlâjî Bâjî Râo, third Peshwâ	Ch. vii. § 7; ☞ v. § 53.
	1741–1754	Dupleix in Pondicherry . . .	Ch. vii. § 7.
	1744	R. Clive lands in India	Ch. viii. § 11.
	1744–1761	*Struggles of French and English in the Carnatic*	Ch. viii.
	1746	*Madras taken by the French* . . *Paradis gains a signal victory* .	Ch. viii. § 4.

V. THE ENGLISH PERIOD.

	A.D.		
§	*1748	Death of Muhammad Shâh. Ahmad Shâh succeeds: the thirteenth Mogul	Ch. iii. § 15.
		Death of Nizâm-ul-Mulk	Ch. v. § 59. ☞ Comp. ch. viii. § 14, Summary.
		Death of Sâhu, the third Mahratta Râja	
		Battle of Sirhind. *The two Ahmads*	
		LAWRENCE comes to India	
	1749	Siege of *Dêonhalli*	Ch. xii. § 11.
	1750	TIPPÛ born. WARREN HASTINGS landed in India	Ch. x. § 35.
		The second battle of AMBÛR. Death of Anwâr-ud-dîn	Ch. viii. § 16.
	*1751	Defence of Arcot	Ch. viii. § 20, &c.; xi. § 23; v. § 57, 63.
	1752	Trichinopoly relieved. Chandâ Sahêb slain. Clive's triumph	Ch. viii. § 23.
§	1754	Ahmad Shâh blinded and imprisoned	Ch. iii. § 18.
		Âlamgîr II., the fourteenth Mogul, succeeds. Dupleix leaves India	Ch. iii. § 19; ch. viii. § 24.
	1756	CLIVE and WATSON on the Western coast	Ch. ix. § 1, 4, 5; viii. § 27.
		The *Black Hole massacre*	
		Jeringapatam besieged by the Mahrattas	Ch. xii. § 12.
	*1757	AHMAD SHÂH ABDÂLÎ in Delhi. PLASSEY	Ch. iii. § 19; v. § 66; ix. § 7–12.
	1758	Ragobâ in the Panjâb. LALLY lands in India	Ch. iii. § 20.; v. § 69; viii. § 30.
§	1759	Âlamgîr II. assassinated. SHÂH ÂLAM II., the fifteenth Mogul emperor	Ch. iii. § 19; v. § 67; ix. § 13, 14.
	1760	Battle of Wandiwash (Jan. 22)	
		Ûdghîr. Resignation of MÎR JAFFÎR. *Mîr Kâsim* elevated. Clive sails for England	Ch. v. § 68; ix. § 18, 16.
		Haidar makes himself master of Mysôr	Ch. xii. § 13.
	*1761	The (FOURTH) battle of PÂNIPAT.	Ch. v. § 69, 70, 71; ix. § 18.
		French power destroyed in India	Ch. viii. § 32.
		Death of Bâlâjî Bâjî Râo. Accession of MÂDU RÂO, the fourth PESHWÂ	Ch. v. § 72.

V.	The English Period.	
A.D.		
1762	. . . . .	Ch. v. § 72.
1763	The *massacre at Patna*	Ch. ix. § 21, 22.
	Haidar takes *Bednôr*	Ch. xii. § 14.
1764	The battle of *Buxâr*. Death of Dupleix	Ch. ix. § 23, 24; viii. § 24.
*1764–1765	THE MEMORABLE TEN MONTHS . .	Ch. v. § 74; ix. § 29.
1765	Haidar defeated by Mâdu Râo. *Bengâl*, *Bahâr*, and *Orissa* ceded to the English	Ch. v. § 74; ix. § 26, 29; xii. § 15.
1766	. . . . .	Ch. v. § 75; xii. § 16, 17.
1766–1769	The *first Mysôr war*	Ch. xii. § 17–21.
1767–1772	Clive's reforms	Ch. ix. § 32, 33.
1769	Haidar at Madras. The French E. C. dissolved	Ch. v. § 76; xii. § 21.
1770	Mâdu Râo in the Carnatic . . .	Ch. v. § 79; xii. § 15, 17.
1771	Shâh Âlam II. returns to Delhi . .	Ch. v. § 81; iii. § 22; xii. § 22.
*1772	Hastings president of Calcutta. Death of Mâdu Râo	Ch. v. § 76, 79, 85; ix. § 35; xii. § 22.
1773	The REGULATING ACT . . . . The fifth Peshwâ, NÂRÂYANA RÂO, is murdered	Ch. v. § 83, 84; ix. § 36, 37; x. § 29.
§ *1774	The FIRST GOVERNOR-GENERAL: see table. Rohilla war. Death of Clive The sixth Peshwâ, MÂDU RÂO NÂRÂYANA, succeeds	Ch. v. § 87, 88; ix. § 36, 37; x. § 3, 108.
*1775	The FIRST MAHRATTA WAR. Treaty of SÛRAT. Battle of Arras . .	Ch. v. § 90, 91; x. § 4; xii. § 57.
1776	The execution of *Nandkumâr* . . Treaty of PÛRANDAR. Upton .	Ch. x. § 5, 32, 64; v. § 92; xii. § 23.
1778	Shâh Âlam II. blinded by GHOLÂM KÂDIR	Ch. iii. § 24; v. § 107.
1779	GODDARD reaches Sûrat . . .	Ch. v. § 96, 97, 98; xii. § 23, 25.
	The Convention of WARGÂOM . .	Ch. v. § 97.
*1780	RANJÎT SING born	Ch. v. § 100, 101; ch. xi. § 25; xii. § 27.
1781	. . . . .	Ch. xii. § 28–30.
1782	Treaty of SALBÂÎ. Death of Haidar .	Ch. v. § 102; xii. §•31.
1783	Peace of Versailles. Dutch possessions fall into the hands of England .	Ch. vii. § 4; viii. § 31; xii. § 30.
1780–1784	The second MYSÔR WAR . . .	Ch. xii. § 27–36.

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*1784	*Pitt's Indian Bill.* Sindia in Delhi	Ch. v. § 103; x. § 12, 15; xii. § 36.
1785	Hastings leaves India. Sindia's claim	Ch. v. § 105.
§1786–1793	EARL CORNWALLIS, second Governor-General	Ch. x. § 125, 188.
1788	The *Declaratory Act*	Ch. x. § 28.
1789	Tippû's attack on the Travancore lines	Ch. v. § 108; xii. § 40.
1790–1792	The THIRD MYSÔR WAR	Ch. xii. § 41–46.
1792	Sindia in Pûna. Battle of *Lakairî*	Ch. v. § 109, 110; x. § 64.
§ 1793	Lord TEIGNMOUTH, third Governor-General. Renewal of the Company's charter. *Lord Cornwallis'* PERMANENT SETTLEMENT	Ch. x. § 23, 28, 188.
1794	Death of MAHÂDAJÎ SINDIA	Ch. v. § 77.
1795	Mutiny of Bengâl officers. KÛRDLÂ	Ch. x. § 31; xii. § 57.
1796	Elevation of the seventh and last Peshwâ, BÂJÎ RÂO II.	Ch. v. § 115.
§ 1798	Marquis of WELLESLEY, fourth Governor-General. Ranjît Sing, Governor of the Panjâb	Ch. xi. § 25; xii. § 47–50.
*1799	The FOURTH MYSÔR WAR. Death of Tippû	Ch. xii. § 50–54.
1800	The establishment of the College of Fort William	Ch. x. § 46.
	The Tanjôr Râja pensioned. Death of NÂNÂ FARNAVÎS	Ch. v. § 119, 121; x. § 44.
1801	The Nuwâb of the Carnatic pensioned	Ch. x. § 44.
	Holkâr at Pûna. The Peshwâ flies	Ch. v. § 120, 121.
1802	TREATY OF BASSEIN	Ch. v. § 123; x. § 48.
1803	*Barôda* under the subsidiary system	Ch. v. § 122.
	The SECOND MAHRATTA WAR	Ch. v. § 124.

April 20. WELLESLEY reaches Pûna.
May. The Peshwâ reinstated.

BATTLES AND SIEGES.

1. August 12. *Ahmadnagar* taken (WELLESLEY).
2. August 29. *Coel and Aligarh* taken (LAKE).
3. September 9. *Jâlna* taken (STEVENSON).
4. September 11. Battle of *Delhi* (LAKE).
5. September 7. *Champaîr* taken (MURRAY).
6. September 23. Battle of ASSAI (WELLESLEY).

A.D.		
	7. October 10. *Kuttack* taken (HARCOURT). 8. October 13. Conquest of *Bandélkhand* complete (POWELL). 9. October 18. *Ágra* taken (LAKE). 10. October 21. *Burhánpúr* and *Asírghar* (STEVENSON). 11. November 1. *Laswárí* (LAKE). 12. November 28. *Argáom* (WELLESLEY). 13. December 15. *Gáwilgarh* taken (STEVENSON). December 17. Treaty of *Déo-gáom*. December 30. Treaty of *Sirjí Anjengáom*.	
1804	The THIRD MAHRATTA WAR . . .	Ch. v. § 136, 137.

COMPARATIVE TABLE

of half a century of Akbar, the real founder of the MOGUL EMPIRE; and of the

Founders of the ANGLO-INDIAN EMPIRE.

AKBAR. 1556-1605.
CLIVE, HASTINGS, CORNWALLIS, WELLESLEY. 1756-1805.

A.D.		A.D.	
1556	*Humáyún* killed. AKBAR on the throne.	1756	Black Hole. CLIVE in Bengál.
1557	*Sikander Súr*, the last Afghán, submits.	1757	*Plassey*.
1560	AKBAR assumes authority.	1760	Second Bengál revolution.
1560, 7	Rebellious chieftains subdued.	1764, 5.	BUXÁR to *Treaty of Aliahábád*.
1572	*Rájpúts* conquered and conciliated.	1772	HASTINGS in Calcutta.
1582	Kábúl occupied.	1782	*Salbái*. Death of *Haidar*.
1592	Conquest of Hindústán complete.	1792	CORNWALLIS overcomes Tippú.
1598	AKBAR in the *Dakhan*.	1798	WELLESLEY in India.
1599	*Ahmadnagar* taken.	1799	*Seringapatam* taken.
1605	AKBAR dies.	1803	*Assáí*, &c. (LAKE, WELLINGTON).
		1805	WELLESLEY leaves India.

A.D.		
§ 1805	Lord Cornwallis's second administration; his death at *Gházípúr* . .	Ch. v. § 137; x. § 52.
	Sir G. Barlow, acting Governor-General	Ch. x. § 53.
	First siege of *Bhartpúr* . . .	Ch. v. § 137.
1806	Accession of Akbar II. sixteenth Mogul	Ch. iii. §. 25.
	The *Vellóre mutiny*	Ch. x. § 55, 58.
§ 1807	The Earl of MINTO, sixth Governor-General	Ch. x. § 188.
1808-1809	The Madras mutiny	Ch. xi. § 24, 26.

The English Period.		V.
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1810	*Mauritius* taken	Ch. v. § 141.
1811	. . . . .	Ch. v. § 140, 144.
1812–1814	Sir S. Raffles, Governor of Java, &c. .	Ch. x. § 68; xii. § 59.
1813	Renewal of the Charter . . .	Ch. v. § 146; x. § 64.
	Trade to India thrown open. Bishop of Calcutta appointed	Ch. x. § 72.
§ 1814	The Marquis of HASTINGS, or Earl of MOIRA, seventh Governor-General. The war with NÎPAL . . .	Ch. x. § 66, 68.
1815	. . . . .	Ch. x. § 74.
1816	. . . . .	Ch. v. § 147.
*1817	FOURTH MAHRATTA WAR. Battle of MEHIDPÛR. *Pûna, Nâgpûr* .	Ch. v. § 160; v. § 151, 154.
1818	End of the PINDÂRÎ war. Treaty of *Mundisôr*, Satârâ	Ch. v. § 157, 160, 162.
1818	Death of Warren Hastings . . .	Ch. x. § 13.
	ASÎRGHAR taken	Ch. v. § 162, 165.
1822	. . . . .	Ch. xi. § 25.
§ 1823	Lord AMHERST, eighth Governor-General	Ch. xi. § 79, 188.
1823–1826	FIRST BIRMESE WAR. Treaty of *Yendabû* (February 1826) . . .	Ch. x. § 79.
1824	The Straits Settlements ceded to English by the Dutch	Ch. x. § 82.
1825	. . . . .	Ch. x. § 81.
1826	Storming of *Bhartpûr*	Ch. x. § 81, 83.
1827	Death of SIR T. MUNRO. D. R. Sindia	Ch. v. § 161.
§ 1828–35	Lord W. BENTINCK, ninth Governor-General	Ch. x. § 56, 85, 188.
1829	Major Sleeman appointed commissioner of Thuggee	Ch. x. § 95.
	Abolition of SATÎ	Ch. x. § 87.
1831	Meeting between Ranjît Sing and Lord W. Bentinck at RÛPAR . . .	Ch. x. § 101.
	The Indus thrown open . . .	Ch. xi. § 26.
1832	. . . . .	Ch. xii. § 60.
1833–1834	Renewal of the Charter . . .	Ch. x. § 97, 98, 99, 103.
	Trade with China thrown open . .	Ch. x. § 103.
1834	Conquest of KÛRG	Ch. x. § 9, 102, 110.
1835	. . . . .	Ch. x. § 104.
1836	Liberation of the Indian Press by Sir C. METCALFE	Ch. x. § 105.
§ 1836	March. Lord AUCKLAND, tenth Governor-General, to 1842 . . .	Ch. x. § 106.

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1837	Accession of Muhammad Bahâdar, seventeenth and last Mogûl emperor . .	Ch. iii. § 25.
1837	. . . . .	Ch. x. § 108.
1838	Defence of *Herât*	Ch. x. § 125.
1839	The AFGHÂN EXPEDITION. Death of Ranjît Sing	Ch. xi. § 27.
1840–1842	The Opium war	Ch. x. § 111; xi. § 27.
1841	Outbreak in Kâbul, November 2 . .	Ch. x. §. 110.
§ 1842	Earl of ELLENBOROUGH, eleventh Governor-General. Conquest of SIND. Afghân disasters retrieved . .	Ch. x. § 111, 116, 125.
1843	GWÂLÎOR. Battles of MAHÂRÂJPÛR and PUNNIÂR	Ch. x. § 124; xi. § 27.
§ 1844	Lord HARDINGE, twelfth Governor-General	Ch. x. § 126, 188.
1845–1846	The FIRST PANJÂB WAR	Ch. xi. § 27–34.
1845	*Tranquebâr* and *Serampore* bought from the Danes	Ch. vii. § 5.
§ 1848	Earl of DALHOUSIE, thirteenth Governor-General	Ch. x. § 137.
1848–1849	SECOND PANJÂB WAR. Annexation of the *Panjâb*	Ch. x. § 137; xi. § 40–44.
1852–1853	The *Second Birmese war*. Annexation of PEGU	Ch. x. § 140.
1853	Sir G. Lawrence, chief commander of the Panjâb. Nâgpûr lapsed . .	Ch. xi. § 46; x. § 144.
1855	The opening of the first Indian railway	Ch. x. § 142. Ch. x. § 149.
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1856–1857	War with Persia. War with China .	Ch. x. § 155–158.
1857–1858	The SEPOY MUTINIES break out, May 10. DELHI retaken	Ch. x. § 159, 184.
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1868	Death of the Râja of Mysôr . .	Ch. xii. § 61.
§ 1869	The Earl of MAYO, seventeenth Governor-General	Ch. x. § 191.

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Krishna Râya, ch. iv. § 6, 29. A famous king of Bîjanagar, 1559.
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Kutb Shâh of Golconda, ch. iv. § 25; v. § 23. The founder of the Kutb Shâhî dynasty, 1512.
Kutb-ud-dîn, the first Muhammadan ruler of Delhi, ch. ii. § 16–20. 1206.
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1. Born 1744; 2. With Cornwallis when he surrendered at York Town, 1782; 3. In the campaign against France, 1793; 4. Appointed Commander-in-Chief in India, 1800; 5. Battle of Coel, August 29, 1803; 6. Storming of Alighar, September 4, 1803; 7. Battle of Delhî, September 11, 1803; 8. Liberates Shâh Âlâm, September 14, 1803; 9. Takes Âgra, September 18, 1803; 10. Battle of Laswârî, November 1, 1803. (In two months he had destroyed thirty-one battalions, officered and led by Frenchmen, stormed Alighar, taken Delhî and Âgra, and captured 426 pieces of cannon.) 11. Receives thanks of Parliament, and is created Lord Lake, September 1, 1804; 12. Pursues Holkâr; 13. Storms Dig, Christmas Day, 1804; 14. Siege of Bhartpûr; the Râja submits, April 10, 1804; 15. Pursues Holkâr into the Paujâb, December, 1804; 16. Embarks for Europe, February 1807; 17. Is created Viscount, October 31, 1808; 18. Dies, February 21, 1809.

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Bancoora, intro. § 8.

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Bandêlkhand, a district, governed originally by Bandêla Râjas. It came under the English in 1817. There are in it thirty-six feudatory states. It is included in the Central India agency, intro. § 12, 23; ch. v. § 132; x. § 70.
Bangalôr, ch. v. § 7; xii. § 1, 8, 41.
Banganpully, Zemindâr. Ceded districts, intro. § 24.
Bankât, ch. v. § 65.
Bantam, in Jâva, ch. vii. § 6.
Bannú, intro. § 10; ch. xi. § 4.
Bansda, intro. § 24.
Banswâra, intro. § 24, 36.
Baoni, intro. § 24.
Baraitch, intro. § 11.
Baramahâl, intro. § 23; ch. xii. § 21, 44, 45.
Barâmatî, ch. v. § 9.
Bardâ, a district in Kâttiawâr.
Bareilly, intro. 9; ch. x. § 39, 75.
Barcelôr, fifty-five miles north by west from Mangalôr. Formerly a place of great trade, ch. i. § 29; v. § 17.
Bârîa, intro. § 18. In the Rêwa Kântâ, Bombay.
Bart Doâb, ch. xi. § 3.
Baroach (Baryagaza), Broach, ch. iv. § 14.
Barôda, intro. § 18, 24, 25; ch. v. § 112, 122.
Barrackpûr, on the east of the Hûglî, about sixteen miles above Calcutta, ch. x. § 80.
Barren Island, intro. § 38.
Basôda, intro. § 12.
Bassahîr, intro. § 24.
Bassein (1), Birma, intro. § 15; ch. x. § 79.
Bassein (2), near Bombay, ch. v. § 51, 53, 88, 101, 121–124; x. § 34; vi. § 16, 20.
Batavia, Java, on the north-west coast, ch. vii. § 4.
Batinda, ch. ii. § 7; xi. § 8.
Battâla, ch. xi. § 3.
Bednôr (Bednûr, Nagar), Mysôr, ch. xii. § 14, 34.
Beghram, ch. i. § 19.
Beerbhûm (Vîra-bhûmi = *land of heroes*), intro. § 8.
Behrî (Bandêlkhand, feudatory), intro. § 24.
Behut (Bandêlkhand, feudatory), intro. § 24.
Belaspûr, intro. § 13, 24.
Belgâum, intro. § 18. Taken by Sir T. Munro in 1818.
Bellary (Ballârî), intro. § 16; ch. iii. § 16; x. § 40.
Belâchistân, ch. i. § 29.
Benâres (Kâçi), the most populous city in India, very sacred, on the Ganges, intro. § 9, 24; ch. ii. § 16; ix. § 36; x. § 11, 32, 173.

Bengâl, intro. § 7, 8, 23; ch. ix.
Berâr, intro. § 20, 23; ch. iii. § 16; v. § 56.
Berhâmpûr, ch. x. § 161.
Beronda (Bandêlkhand, feudatory), intro. § 24.
Betwa (River), intro. § 34.
Bhadowra, intro. § 12.
Bhadra, intro. § 34.
Bhagîratî, two rivers, one near the source of the Ganges; the other the upper Hûglî, intro. § 34.
Bhâgulpûr (Boglipore), a town and district in Bengâl proper, intro. § 8.
Bhâonagar, intro. § 18, 24. In Kâttiwâr.
Bhartpûr, a Jât city, thirty-one miles from Âgra, intro. § 24–36; ch. v. § 53, 137; x. § 81.
Bhatîa, ch. ii. § 8.
Bhavânî, intro. § 34.
Bhâwalpûr, intro. § 10; ch. xi. § 37.
Bhîlsa, ch. v. § 96.
Bhôpâl, intro. § 12, 24, 25; ch. i. § 23; v. § 96; x. § 102.
Bhôr Ghât, intro. § 33.
Bhôtân (Bûtân), ch. x. § 190.
Bîânî, ancient capital of Âgra. It is sixty-five miles from the city of Âgra. Now *Kerowlî*.
Bîâs (Beas), River (Hyphasis), intro. § 34.
Bîbîgung, ch. x. § 175.
Bîdar (Ahmadâbâd, Vidharba), ch. iv. § 19, 20, 27. On the Manjîra R.
Bîjg, intro. § 24.
Bîjânagar (Vijaya-nagar, Narsinga), ch. iii. § 3; iv. § 2, 19–29; xii. § 5.
Bîjapûr, ch. iii. § 9; iv. § 23; vi. § 3.
Bîjâwar, intro. § 24.
Bîjnûr, intro. § 9.
Bîkanîr, a city and district in Râjpûtâna, intro. § 24, 36.
Bîma, intro. § 34; ch. v. § 2, 155.
Bimlîpatam, about fifteen miles north-east of Vizagapatam, on the coast of Orissa, a place of considerable trade, ch. vii. § 4.
Bindrabund (Vrindavana), near Mat'hura, the scene of Krishna's youthful frolics, thirty-five miles N.N.W. from Âgra.
Birma, intro. § 15; ch. x. § 79.
Bisnagar.
Bîtûr, near Khânpûr; x. § 173.
Bogra, intro. § 8.
Bokerdûn, ch. v. § 127.
Bokhâra, ch. ii. § 5; iii. § 3; x. § 190.
Bolâram, a cantonment, twelve miles north of Haidarâbâd.
Bolân Pass, ch. x. § 110, 118.

Bombay (Mahim), capital of Western India, population, 730,000; intro. § 18, 23; ch. iii. § 9; vii. § 6. (Not from *buon-bahia* = good harbour; but Mahratta word *Mumbia*.)
Boolundshuhur intro. § 9.
Bourbon, ch. vii. § 7; x. § 66.
Brâhmanî (River), intro. § 34. (= Bahminî.)
Brahmaputra (River), intro. § 34.
Brahmârshidêsa, ch. i. § 5.
Brahmâvarta, ch. i. § 5.
Brazil, ch. vi. § 5.
Brimhâpurî, ch. iii. § 9.
Broach (Barôch, Barûch), intro. § 18; ch. i. § 29; v. § 97, 102, 129.
Budâon, intro. § 9; ch. x. § 39.
Buddowâl, ch. xi. § 32.
Budge-Budge, a battle, below Calcutta, ch. ix. § 6.
Bughat, intro. § 24.
Bukkur, ch. x. § 110.
Bulsun, intro. § 24.
Bundara, intro. § 13.
Bûndî, city and state in Râjpûtâna, intro. § 24, 36; ch. v. § 163.
Burdwân, intro. § 8, 23; ch. ix. § 16.
Burhânpûr, the residence of the Mogul Viceroys of the Dakhan, ch. iii. § 6, 7, 9; v. § 128.
Burwânî, intro. § 12.
Bustar, or *Jugdalpûr*, its aborigines are Gônds, a people formerly addicted to cannibalism and human sacrifices, intro. § 13, 24.
Bustî, intro. § 9.
Bûtân (Bhôtân, Bootan), intro. § 23.
Bûtwâl (Butool, Butaul), in Oudh, ch. x. § 74.
Buxâr, south-east of the Ganges, fifty-eight miles E.N.E. from Benâres, ch. ix. § 22–24.
Bytwrnî (River), intro. § 34.

C

[See under K.]

Cabûl (Kâbul), ch. x. § 110, 119, 122.
Cachâr, intro. § 8, 23.
Caggar (River), ch. i. § 5.
Calcutta (City), intro. § 8, 23; ch. iii. § 12; vii. § 6; ix. § 5.
Calicut, ch. iv. § 8; vii. § 7; xii. § 16, 34, 43.

Calliân (Kalyâna).
Calpî (Kalpî).
Cambay, intro. § 24. (Khambâyat.)
Canara (South), intro. § 16, 23; ch. x. § 42; xii. § 37, 56.
Canara (North), intro. § 18.
Candahâr (Khandahâr, Kandahâr), ch. x. § 110.
Candy (Kandy), intro. § 37.
Cannanûr (Cannanôr), intro. § 16; ch. vi. § 5.
Cape de Verde Islands, ch. vi. § 2.
Cape of Good Hope, ch. vi. § 2.
Caricâl (Kâricâl), intro. § 17; ch. vii. § 7.
Carnatic (Karnatic), intro. § 23, 32; ch. iii. § 18; iv. § 2: v. § 53. 55: vii. § 7; x. § 44.
Carûr (Karûr = Blacktown), intro. § 34; ch. xii. § 36.
Cashmîr (Kâshmîr), intro. § 24, 25, 27; ch. xi. § 2, 7, 34.
Catmandoo (Katmandû), the capital of Nîpâl, ch. x. § 74.
Câvêrî (River), (Chaberis, Kâvêrî), intro. § 34; ch. xii. § 1.
Cawnpûr (Khânpûr), ch. x. § 39.
Ceded Districts of Haidarâbâd, intro. § 23; ch. iii. § 16.
Ceded Districts of Oudh, intro. § 23; ch. x. § 39.
Cêra Kingdom, ch. i. § 28; iv. § 8.
Ceylon (Lanka), intro. § 22, 37; ch. vi. § 10.
Chaberis (Câvêrî), q.v., intro. § 14.
Châkan, a fort, 18 miles N. of Pûna. It was taken in 1662 by Shayista Khân, after a siege of two months, and with a loss of 900 men. Ch. v. § 16; and by the British in 1818.
Chakawâl, ch. xi. § 3.
Chamba, intro. § 10, 24.
Chambal (River), intro. § 12, 34, 36.
Champanîr, ch. iii. § 4; v. § 129.
Chanda, a large town on the West Warda; coal has been found here, intro. § 13.
Chandernagor, about sixteen miles above Calcutta, intro. § 17; ch. vii. § 7; ix. § 8.
Chandragirî, ch. iv. § 29.
Changâma (Singarpetta), ch. xii. § 17, 27, 41.
Chatisghâr, intro. § 13.
Chatterpûr, Bandêlkhand, feudatory, intro. § 12, 24.
Chaul (Choul), it is thirty miles south by east from Bombay, on the coast, ch. vi. § 10.
Cheduba, an island in Arakân, a few miles from Râmrî, ch. x. § 79.
Chêrkâlî, ch. v. § 79; xii. § 22.
Chicacole (Shrîkâkolam), the chief, civil station in Ganjam; capital of an ancient Hindû kingdom, ch. iv. § 11; iii. § 16 (5).
Chillianwallah, ch. xi. § 40, 42.

Chillumbrum (Sitambaram), on the sea-coast, three miles south of Porto Novo, ch. viii. § 31.
Chimalarî, intro. § 33.
China, ch. x. § 158.
Chinâb, intro. § 34; ch. xi. § 3.
Chindwâra, intro. § 13.
Chingleput (Fort), intro. § 16, 23; ch. iv. § 29; viii. § 24. Taken by Clive in 1752.
Chinsura, on the west bank of the Hûglî, eighteen miles from Calcutta, ch. ix. § 5, 14.
Chîtôr, a strong fortress in Râjpûtâna, ch. ii. § 32; iii. § 6.
Chittûr (Chittore), an old fort and town, in N. Arcot. Near it are an immense number of ancient sepulchres, or *cromlechs*.
Chittagong, intro. § 8.
Chittapet, it is seventy-eight miles south-west from Madras, ch. viii. § 31.
Chittledrûg (Chitradrûg, Chitrakal = *the umbrella rock*), ch. xii. § 1.
Chôla, ch. i. § 28.
Chôta Nagpûr, intro. § 8.
Chowghât Pass, going into Coimbatûr, ch. x. § 63.
Chumparun, or *Bhattia*, intro. § 8.
Chunâr, on the Ganges, between Benâres and Mirzâpûr, ch. iii. § 4; v. § 158.
Churkarî, Bandêlkhand, faithful in 1857, feudatory, intro. § 12, 24.
Chuttanatti, ch. vii. § 6.
Circârs (Northern), intro. § 23; ch. iii. § 16; ix. § 14. The ancient name was *Kalinga*.
Cis-Satlaj States, intro. § 23; ch. x. § 169; xi. § 8.
Cochin (*Kachhi*; Ant. Colchi), intro. § 16, 24; ch. i. § 29; vi. § 5, 8; x. § 64. Here are colonies of white and black Jews. These latter seen to have been on the western coast from the third century A.D.
Coel, ch. v. § 130.
Coimbatôr (Koyimbatûr), intro. § 16, 23; ch. iv. § 8; x. § 42; xii. § 56.
Colleroon, *R.*, intro. § 34.
Colombo, intro. § 37.
Comorin (Cape), (Kumari), intro. § 1, 2.
Conjeveram (Kânchipuram), ch. iv. § 5. One of the seven sacred Hindû cities. Its great temple was built by Krishna Râya, 1509. Ch. iv. § 29.
Cooch Bahâr, intro. § 8, 24.
Corah (Karrah), ch. ix. § 28.
Corigâom (Korigâom).
Cornwallis (Port), intro. § 38; x. § 79.
Cossimbazaar (Kâsîm-bazâr), ch. ix. § 4.
Cossyah (Hills), (Kosiya), intro. § 8.
Coulan (Quilon), ch. i. § 29.
Covelong, ch. viii. § 24.

Cranganôr, sixteen miles north of Cochin, ch. vi. § 9.
Cuddalôr (Cuddalore, *Gûdal-ûr*), intro. § 16; ch. viii. § 9, 31; xii. § 35.
Cuddapa (Kadapa, *Kûrpa*), intro. § 16; ch. iii. § 16; viii. § 18; x. § 40.
Cûrg (*Kûrg*, *Coorg*), intro. § 23.
Cutch (*Katch*), intro. § 18.
Cuttack (Kuttack), capital of the Gajapati Râjas of Orissa, at the mouth of the Mahânadî, intro. § 8, 23, 24.

D

Dâbul ch. vi. § 11.
Dacca, intro. § 8.
Dakhan, intro. § 30; ch. i. § 6; ix.
Dâmalchêri Pass, ch. v. § 55.
Damân (Dâman), it is one hundred miles from Bombay. Intro. § 19; ch. vi. § 22. It is the capital of a district ten miles by five.
Damûda, intro. § 34.
Darjeeling, intro. § 8.
Daulêshwaram, on the Godâvarî. Here is the great dam, or *anicut*.
David, *Fort St.*, intro., § 23; viii. § 21.
Dêra Dûn, intro. § 9; ch. x. § 74.
Delhî (Indraprashtra), intro. § 9, 10, 23; ch. ii. § 16, 19; v. § 130; vii. § 7; x. § 166.
Dêogâom, ch. v. § 134.
Dêogiri, ch. ii. § 19; iv. § 15.
Dêoghar (Baidia), (1) intro. § 18; (2) ch. iv. § 14, 15.
Dêomhalli, ch. xii. § 1, 11.
Dêra Fatih Khân, ch. xi. § 4.
Dêra Ghâzi Khân, intro. § 10; ch. xi. § 4.
Dêra Ishmael Khân, intro. § 10; ch. xi. § 4, 37.
Dêrajât, intro. § 10; ch. xi. § 2, 4.
Dêvaprayâga, intro. § 34.
Dêvikôta, ch. viii. § 24, 31.
Dêwas, intro. § 12, 24.
Dêwâl, ch. ii. § 4.
Deybur, intro. § 36.
Dhamî, intro. § 24.
Dhâr, intro. § 12, 24.
Dharampûr, intro. § 24.

Dharmasâla, ch. x. § 189.
Dhârwâr, intro. § 18. Taken in 1780.
Dhauli, ch. i. § 8.
Dhâvala-Giri (= *the white mountain*), intro. § 33.
Dholapûr, a principality of Râjpûtâna, sometimes called Gôhud, intro. § 24; ch. v. § 137.
Dhund, *R.* intro. § 36.
Dhurwyi, intro. § 24.
Diamper, fourteen miles east from Cochin, ch. vi. § 21.
Dîg (Deeg), ch. v. § 137.
Dinanagar, ch. xi. § 3.
Dindigal, intro. § 23; ch. xii. § 13, 36, 45.
Dîû, intro. § 19; ch. vi. § 11, 16, 17, 22.
Doâb, ch. xi. There are besides the Doâbs in the Panjâb, that between the Ganges and the Jamna, and the S. Mahratta Doâb, between the Kishtna and the Tûmbhadra. [= *two rivers*. The land between two rivers. "*Mesopotamia*," "*Al Jezirah*."]
Dodda-betta (*Mt.*), intro. § 33.
Dôjana, intro. § 24.
Donabew, Mahâ Bandûla was killed there, ch. x. § 79.
Dondra Head, intro. § 1, 2.
Daulatâbâd (= *the abode of pleasure*), ch. iv. § 14, 15. Anciently, Dêogiri, some imagine it to be the ancient Tagara.
Dubhoy (Dubhâî), ch. v. § 100.
Duflôkâr, of Jât, intro. § 24.
Dumoh, intro. § 13.
Dungarpûr, intro. § 24, 36.
Durkôti, intro. § 24.
Durriâbâd, intro. § 11.
Durrang, intro. § 8.
Dutîta, intro. § 12, 24.
Dwâra Samudra, ch. iv. § 9; xii. § 2.

E

Edar (Idar), intro. § 18, 24; ch. iii. 6.
Elephanta, an island six miles from Bombay, celebrated for its cave temples.
Ellôra, ch. v. § 7. Famous for its sculptured caves.
Ellore (Êlûr), in the N. Sirkars, close to the Kolâr lake, ch. iii. § 16 (5).
Ellichpûr, the ancient capital of Berâr, ch. ii. § 31; iv. § 16, 26.

Esa Keyl Valley, ch. xi. § 4. [The tribe of Esau.]
Etah, intro. § 9.
Etawah, intro. § 9.
Eusofzye, division of Peshâwar, ch. xi. § 4.
Everest (*Mt.*), intro. § 33.

F

Farghânah, or *Transoxiana* (Mawarâ-n-Nâhr), ch. iii. § 3.
Fatihghur, ch. v. § 137.
Ferôz-pûr, intro. § 10; ch. ii. § 37; xi. § 8, 29; x. § 121, 123.
Ferôz-shâh, ch. xi. § 31.
Fulda (Fulta), on the east of the Hûgli, twenty miles S.S.W., in a straight direction from Calcutta, ch. ix. § 5, 35.
Furrîdkôt, intro. § 24.
Furrîdpûr, intro. § 8.
Furruckâbâd, a city on the Ganges. In 1802 its Nuwab surrendered it to the British, receiving a large pension. His descendant rebelled in 1857, and was sent into exile, intro. § 9.
Futtehpûr, intro. § 9. [Fatih-pûr.]
Fyzâbâd, intro. § 11.

G

Galle (Point de), in Ceylon, intro. § 37.
Galna, ch. v. § 137.
Gambhîr R., a tributary of the Bâmganga, intro. § 36.
Ganges (River) intro. § 34.
Ganges (Canal), ch. x. § 146.
Ganjam, intro. § 16.
Garra (River), intro. § 34; ch. xi.
Garrow (Hills), intro. § 8, 33.
Gâwilgarh, ch. v. § 133, 134.
Gerouli, Bandêlkhand, intro. § 24.
Gerseppa Falls, on the Gerseppa (or *Kural* or *Shirâvati*) river, near Honâwar, are the largest in India.

Ghâts (Eastern and Western), intro. § 31, 32, 33.
Ghâzipûr, Lord Cornwallis died there, intro. § 9; ch. x. § 52.
Ghazni, Afghânistân, ch. ii. § 5–18; x. § 110–116, 121.
Gheriah (= *fort*), Western Coast, (1) ch. v. § 65; viii. § 27; ix. § 21, [See *Viziadrûg*.]
Ghôr, ch. ii. § 15.
Ghurra, intro. § 12.
Ginjî, ch. v. § 34; viii. § 18.
Girnar, ch. i. § 8.
Goa, intro. § 19; vi. § 12, 14–22. There is Panjim or New Goa; old Goa; and five miles distant the ruins of the Hindû Goa.
Godâvarî (River and District), intro. § 16, 34.
Gôgra (River), intro. § 34.
Gôhud (Dholapûr), a city twenty-three miles north of Gwâliôr, capital of a district, intro. § 36; ch. v. § 137.
Golconda, ch. iii. § 9; iv. § 25.
Gonda, intro. § 11.
Gondwâna, intro. § 13.
Good Hope (Cape of), ch. vi.
Gooty (Gûti), ch. xii. § 56; v. § 99; x. § 84.
Gorruckpûr, intro. § 9.
Gôrihâr, intro. § 24.
Goholwâd, a district in Kâttiyawâr. Here is Bhâvnagar.
Gour, ruins near Mâlda, in Dînâjpûr, ch. ii. § 19; iii. § 4; i. § 22.
Govindpûr, a town in the Panjâb.
Gowalpara, intro. § 8.
Gujarât (*I.*), a district of Western India, intro. § 18; ch. i. § 7, 25, 28; ii. § 11; iii. § 4; v. § 147.
Gujarât (*II.*), battlefield in the Panjâb, intro. § 10; xi. § 42.
Gujaranwâla, Panjâb, intro. § 10.
Gûmsûr, in Orissa, ch. x. § 133.
Gûmtî (River), intro. § 34.
Gûna, intro. § 12.
Gundamuck, ch. x. § 110, 120.
Gundigâma (River), intro. § 34.
Gunduck (Sâlagrâmî), intro. § 34.
Guntûr, intro. § 23; x. § 21; iii. § 16 (5).
Gurdaspûr, intro. § 10.
Gurgâon, intro. § 10.
Gurhwâl, sub-Himâlayan province, intro. § 9, 24, 27; x. § 74.
Gurramcotta, ch. xii. § 56.
Gûti, ch. xii. § 56; v. § 99; x. § 84.
Gutpûrba, a tributary of the Kishtna, intro. § 34. On this are the magnificent falls of Gokâk.

Gwâliôr, the "*Bastille* of India": the state prison of the Moguls; Sindia's capital, intro. § 12, 25; ch. ii. § 23; v. § 100, 103, 137, 141, 161; x. § 124.
Gya (Gaya), intro. § 8; ch. i. § 11.

H

Hâla (Mountains, Hâla-Hâla), intro. § 1, 33.
Halâd, a district in Kâttiawâd. Nowânagar is in it.
Hallabîd, ch. xii. § 2. Here are fine ancient temples, both Saiva and Jain.
Harâotî, south-east division of Râjpûtâna, picturesque, well-wooded, and fertile, intro. § 36.
Hardwâr, ch. ii. § 43.
Hastinâpûra, ch. i. § 7.
Hastnagar, Peshâwar, ch. xi. § 4.
Hazara, intro. § 10; ch. xi. § 2, 6.
Hazarîbâgh, intro. § 8.
Helmund (River), the Elymandrus, rises in the Paropamisus M., and flows into the lake of Zûr.
Herât (Artachoana), ch. i. § 19, 29; x. § 110.
Himâlaya (Mountains), intro. § 1, 27, 33.
Hindû Koosh, the Himâlaya range north of Afghânistân, intro. § 33.
Hindûstân, intro. § 28; ch. i. § 29.
Hinglâzghar, intro. § 36.
Hissar, capital of Hurriâna, 105 miles W.N.W. from Delhi, intro. § 10.
Hong-Kong, ch. x. § 111.
Honore (Onore, Honâwâr), ch. xii. § 20, 34.
Hoshungâbâd, intro. § 13.
Howrah, intro. § 8.
Hurdwâr, intro. § 11.
Hâglî, intro. § 8, 34; ch. i. § 29; ix. § 6.
Hugrî, intro. § 34; ch. xii. § 1.
Hummeerpûr, intro. § 9.
Humpi, ch. iv. § 29.
Hushiarpûr, intro. § 10.
Hydaspes, intro. § 34.
Hyderâbâd (Sind), intro. § 18; ch. x. § 125.
Hyderâbâd (Dakhan), intro. § 20, 23–25; ch. iii. § 12; x. § 78.
Hydraotes (Ravî River), intro. § 34.
Hysudras (Satlaj River), intro. § 34.
Hublî, a great cotton mart in the S. Maratta country. Here was one of the earliest English factories.

I

Ikery, ch. xii. § 14.
Imâm-ghur, ch. x. § 125.
India, further, hither, intro. § 26.
Indôr, intro. § 12; ch. v. § 45, 75, 121, 137.
Indraprashta, ch. i. § 7.
Indravatî (River), intro. § 34.
Indus, intro. § 10, 34; ch. i. § 18, 19; x. § 101, 125.
Irawâdy, ch. x. § 79.
Islamâbâd, ch. xi. § 7
Istaliff, ch. x. § 122.

J

Jaffirâbâd, ch. v. § 127, 137.
Jaffna, North Ceylon, intro. § 37.
Jâlna (Jaulnah), ch. v. § 126. On the River Gandalka, tributary of the Dûdhna, tributary of the Godâvarî.
Jaloun, in Bandêlkhand, was annexed in 1840, intro. § 9.
Jamkandî, intro. § 18.
Jamna (River), [*Jumna* S. YAMUNÂ], rises in Gurhwâl, and joins the Ganges at Allâhâbâd, intro. § 12, 34; ch. i. § 29.
Jât, intro. § 36; ch. xi. § 37.
Jâva, ch. i. § 8.
Jaxartes, or *Syr Daria*, falls into the Sea of Âral.
Jeisalmîr, Râjpûtâna, intro. § 24.
Jellâlâbâd, Afghânistân, the immortal garrison, ch. x. § 110, 117.
Jemla, in Nîpâl.
Jessôr, intro. § 8.
Jetch (Doâb), Panjâb, ch. xi. § 3.
Jeypûr (*I.*), Orissa, intro. § 16, 36.
Jeypûr (*II.*), the largest city in Râjpûtâna—regular, clean. The ancient capital was Ambêr, intro. § 24, 25, 36; ch. iii. § 6.
Jhabbûa, intro. § 12.
Jhallâwar, intro. § 24, 36.
Jhalra Patân, intro. § 12.
Jhânsî, in Bandêlkhand, annexed in 1853, intro. § 9, 23; ch. x. § 147, 181.
Jhîlam (River), Panjâb, intro. § 10, 34; ch. i. § 29; xi. § 3.

Jhínd, Cis-Satlaj state, intro. § 24; ch. xi. § 8.
Jhung, intro. § 10.
Jignî, Bandêlkhand, feudatory, intro. § 24.
Jinjîra, Western Coast, ch. v. § 15, 29, 65, 113.
Jobutt, intro. § 12.
Jôdhpûr, capital of Mârwâr, Râjpûtâna, intro. § 24, 25, 36; ch. iii. § 6.
Joobal, intro. § 24.
Jounpûr (Juanpoor), intro. § 9; ch. ii. § 42; iii. § 3 (11).
Jowra, intro. § 12, 24.
Juah (Jewah), a small river, near to which is Assaî, ch. v. § 127.
Jubbulpûr, a well-built town, 160 miles from Nâgpur, tents are manufactured there, intro. § 13.
Jullindhur (Julindar), Panjâb, intro. § 10, 23; ch. x. § 129; xi. § 3, 34.
Jumouri, intro. § 33.
Jumu, ch. xi. § 34.
Jûnaghar, intro. § 18, 24; ch. i. § 8.
Juntîr, ch. v. § 9.
Jussû, Bandêlkhand, feudatory, intro. § 24.
Jyntîa (Hills), intro. § 8.

K

Kâbul (*I.*), ch. i. § 18; iii. § 3, 4, 6; x. § 69, 110, 120.
Kâbul (*II.*), (River), intro. § 34.
Kailâsa (*Mountain*), intro. § 33, 34.
Kailnâ (Khelnâ), a small river near to which is Assaî, ch. v. § 127.
Kaira (Kheda), the chief station in the eastern division of Gujarât, intro. § 18. It is very unhealthy and nearly deserted by Europeans.
Kâlabâgh, ch. xi. § 4.
Kâlî Sind (River), intro. § 34.
Kalinjîr, Bandêlkhand. The district belongs to six chobeys, intro. § 24; ch. ii. § 6, 10; iii. § 5.
Kalyân (Kaliân, Calian), ch. v. § 15, 100. A town in the Konkan, thirty-three miles from Bombay. There was a Christian bishop here in the sixth century. It was anciently a great capital.
Kaliyânî (Kalyân, Kaliân), ch. iv. § 11.
Kalunga, twenty-six miles north from Hurdwâr, ch. x. § 74.
Kalpi, ch. ix. § 25; x. § 181.
Kamrûp, intro. § 8.
Kamptî, on the Kanhan, a tributary of the Wain Gangâ, about ten miles from Nâgpur.

Kanara (Canara), intro. § 18, 23.
Kandahâr (Candahâr, Khandahâr), ch. iii. § 3; x. § 110, 118.
Kândêsh, intro. § 18.
Kangra (Nâgarkôt), intro. § 10; ch. ii. § 8; xi. § 5.
Kanouj, ch. i. § 6, 27, 28; ii. § 9, 16.
Kapurthala, Panjâb, intro. § 10, 24; ch. xi. § 5.
Kâpur-di-giri, ch. i. § 8.
Karâchî, Sind, intro. § 18.
Kâricâl, French settlement, intro. § 17; ch. vii. § 7.
Kârlî, a village near the top of the Bhor Ghât. Here is the largest and finest chaitya or Buddhist cave-temple in India. Its date is about 70 B.C. Ch. i. § 11.
Karma-nâsa (River), ch. ix. § 13. [= *destruction of merit.*]
Karnâtaka, ch. xii. § 2.
Karrack, ch. x. § 155.
Karrah, ch. ii. § 31.
Kâshmîr, see *Cashmîr*.
Katch, (Cutch), intro. § 18, 24.
Katmandû, Nîpâl, ch. x. § 74, 181.
Kâvêrî (Câvêrî), intro. § 34.
Kelât, ch. x. § 110.
Keonthul, intro. § 24.
Kerowlî (Kerâoli), city and principality in Râjpûtâna, formerly Bîâna, intro. § 24, 36; ch. x. § 147.
Khânpûr (Cawnpore), intro. § 9; ch. x. § 172, 173.
Kharism (now *Khiva*), ch. ii. § 22.
Kharond, intro. § 13, 24.
Khorasân, Persia, ch. ii. § 5; iii. § 6.
Khulsia, intro. § 24.
Khyber Pass, Afghânistân, ch. x. § 110, 117; xi. § 4.
Khyrâbâd, intro. § 11.
Khyrpûr, Sind, ch. x. § 125.
Kilchipûr, intro. § 12.
Kineri, ch. xi. § 37.
Kirkî, ch. v. § 151. [Khirkî, Kirkee.] A few miles from Pûna, and a cavalry station. Also, the original name of Aurungâbâd. Ch. iii. § 7.
Kishtna (River), (*Kistna*, Krishna), intro. § 16, 34.
Kishnagar, intro. § 24, 36.
Kittûr, a small Mahratta fief, which lapsed in 1824. Southern Mahratta country, ch. v. § 106.
Kohât, intro. § 10; ch. xi. § 4.
Kojut Pass, ch. x. § 110.
Kokhân, ch. iii. § 3.
Kolâba, ch. v. § 113.

Kolâr, ch. v. § 7.
Kolâr Lake (Kolair), is 100 square miles in area. It is south of Râjamandri, ch. iii. § 16 (5).
Kolhâpûr, it is 121 miles S. by E. from Pûna, intro. § 18; ch. v. § 47, 166.
Kondapilly, ch. iii. § 16 (5).
Konkan, ch. v. § 4.
Kopergâom, death of Ragobâ, ch. v. § 102.
Korigâom, famous battle, ch. v. § 151, 155.
Kôsi (River), rises near Catmandu, intro. § 34.
Kota, on the right bank of the Chambal, strongly fortified, intro. § 24, 36.
Kotâr, ch. x. § 63.
Kothar, intro. § 24.
Kothî, in Bandêlkhand, intro. § 24.
Kulbûrga, capital of the Bâhminî dynasty, ch. iv. § 20-23.
Kumaôn, sub-Himâlayan province, between Nipâl and Gurhwâl, intro. § 9, 27.
Kumnya Dhâna, intro. § 24.
Kunchinganga, intro. § 33.
Kunwâr, intro. § 18.
Kûrâlâ, famous battle, ch. v. § 114.
Kûrg (Cûrg), S.E. of Mysôr. Here are the sources of the Kâvêrî. Capital, Markâra—population 113,000, intro. § 14; ch. x. § 90; xii. § 23, 44, 45.
Kurnâl, intro. § 10.
Kurnûl, intro. § 16; ch. iv. § 25; x. § 112.
Kûrpa (*Kadapa*), ch. iv. § 25; xii. § 23.
Kuru-Kshêtra, the battlefield between Delhi and the Saraswatî river, ch. i. § 7.
Kurwâî, intro. § 12.
Kûshâb, ch. x. § 157.
Kûsi, intro. § 34.
Kuttack (Cuttack), intro. § 23; ch. v. § 57, 134.
Kytul, ch. xi. § 26.

L

Lascadives, intro. § 38.
Lahâr, ch. v. § 100.
Lâhôr, intro. § 10; ch. ii. § 10; v. § 70; xi. § 3.
Lakairi, ch. v. § 110.
Landour, in Gurhwâl, sanitarium.
Lanka, Sanskrit name for *Ceylon*, intro. § 37; ch. i. § 6, 29.
Loia, ch. xi. § 45.

Logassi, intro. § 24.
Lohardugga, intro. § 8.
Loharoo, intro. § 24.
Luckimpôr, intro. § 8.
Lucknow, intro. § 11; ch. x. § 174, 180.
Lûdiâna, intro. § 10; ch. xi. § 8.
Lullutpûr, intro. § 9.
Lunâwâra, intro. § 18. In the Rêwa Kântâ, Bombay. Râjpût chief.
Lûni, intro. § 34, 36.

M

Machêri (Mêwât Alwâr), ch. iii. § 4.
Madeira, ch. vi. § 2.
Madras, intro. § 16, 23; ch. iv. § 29; vii. § 6, 7; viii. § 32; x. § 9.
Madura (*Mad'hurâ*), intro. § 16; ch. i. § 12; iv. § 5, 6.
Magadha, ch. i. § 8, 28.
Mahâbalêshwar Hills, a part of the Western Ghâts. The village stands on the highest ground between the Himâlayas and the Nîlagiris. Here rise the Kistna and the Yêna. Intro. § 34 (8).
Mahaban Peak, intro. § 34.
Mahâbalipûr (= *the city of great Bali*). This is called generally "the seven pagodas." It is thirty-five miles S. of Madras. Here are the remains of several splendid temples.
Mahânadî (River), intro. § 34.
Mahârâjpûr, a few miles from Gwâliôr, ch. x. § 124.
Mahârâshtra (Mahratta country), ch. iv. § 14; v. § 2.
Mahé, intro. § 17; ch. xii. § 25.
Mâhî-kânta, intro. § 18.
Mâhulî, ch. v. § 155.
Mahundî, intro. § 11.
Mâî (River), (Mahî, Mhye), intro. § 34; ch. v. § 91.
Mairwarra, intro. § 13, 36; ch. v. § 163; x. § 95.
Makrâi, intro. § 13, 24.
Makwanpûr, a fortress in Nîpâl, seventeen miles south of Catmandû, ch. x. § 74.
Malabâr, intro. § 16, 23; ch. iv. § 8; vi. § 4; xii. § 16, 39, 45. Its ancient name was Kêrala.
Malacca, intro. § 21, 23; ch. vi. § 13; vii. § 4.
Malapûrba, intro. § 34.
Malavelli, battle, Mysôr, ch. xii. § 52.

Mâlda, close to it are the ruins of Gour, intro. § 8. [The "Hindû" capital of Bengâl.]
Maldives, intro. § 38.
Malebum, a fort and town in Nipâl.
Malleir-kotla, intro. § 24.
Maloun, ch. x. § 74.
Mâlwâ, intro. § 12; ch. i. § 24; ii. § 16, 19, 40; v. § 48.
Malwân, an island on the west coast, thirty-three miles N.N.W. from Goa, ch. v. § 143, 145.
Manantoddy (Manantawâdi), the chief town of the Wynaad.
Manbhûm, intro. § 8.
Mandalay, capital of Birma, founded in 1860, seven miles from Amarapura.
Mandavi, the principal seaport in Katch.
Mandû, intro. § 10, 24.
Mândû, ch. ii. § 23, 40; iii. § 5.
Mangalore, S. Canara, intro. § 16; ch. xii. § 20, 36.
Manjêra (River), intro. § 34; ch. v. § 69, 70.
Mânpûr, intro. § 12.
Manzerâbâd, ch. xii. § 1.
Markâra, ch. x. § 90.
Martaban, a town on the north bank of the Salwîn river, in Pegu, ch. x. § 79.
Mârwâr, intro. § 36; ch. i. § 27, 28; iii. § 6.
Masulipatam (Mesolia), intro. § 16, 23; ch. i. § 29; vii. § 7; ix. § 14.
Mauritius (Île de France), an East African island, one of the Mascarenhas (from a Portuguese navigator) in the Indian Ocean; discovered, but not occupied, by the Portuguese; then taken possession of by the Dutch, who named it from Prince Maurice, and abandoned it in 1710, being driven out by rats. The French then took it, and held it till it was taken from them by the English in 1810. Its capital is Port Louis. ch. xii. § 47; vii. § 7; x. § 60.
Marwat Valley, ch. xi. § 4.
Maver-ul-nahar, ch. ii. § 5.
Mâwals, ch. v. § 4.
Mêgna, intro. § 34.
Mehîdpûr, ch. v. § 151.
Mekkur, intro. § 20.
Meilâpûr (St. Thomé, near Madras), ch. vii. § 7.
Melinda, Africa, ch. vi. § 2.
Mergui, Birma, intro. § 15; x. § 79.
Mêwâr, Râjpûtâna, intro. § 24, 36; ch. i. § 25, 28; iii. § 6.
Mêwât, Râjpûtâna, ch. ii. § 29.
Mhow (Mahu), the frontier cantonment of the Bombay Presidency, thirteen miles S.W. of Indôr, on the Gambhîr R.
Miâni, Sind, ch. x. § 125.

Midnâpûr, it is seventy miles south by west from Calcutta, intro. § 8, 23; ch. ix. § 16.
Mîrâj, intro. § 18.
Mîrpûr, Sind, ch. x. § 125.
Mîrut, intro. § 9; ch. ii. § 43; x. § 165.
Mirzâpûr, intro. § 9.
Mithan Kôt, ch. xi. § 4.
Mithila, ch. i. § 28, 29.
Mohan, intro. § 18. Called also Ohotâ Udeipûr.
Mokhundra Pass, intro. § 36; ch. v. § 137.
Monghyr, a town and district in Bahâr, on the south bank of the Ganges, intro. § 8.
Montgomery, intro. § 10.
Morâdâbâd, intro. § 9.
Moulmein, ch. x. § 79.
Mountains, intro. § 33.
Moyâr, intro. § 34.
Mowlee = *Mâhulî*, ch. v. § 155.
Mâdhôl, intro. § 18, 24.
Mâdkî, ch. xi. § 30; x. § 128.
Mâglî Pass, ch. xii. § 41.
Muhammadghar, intro. § 12.
Mâlâ R., intro. § 34.
Mâltân, intro. § 10; ch. ii. § 4; xi. § 36, 37.
Mundla, intro. § 13.
Mungal, intro. § 24.
Munnipûr, ch. x. § 79.
Mûrshedâbâd, it is 120 miles above Calcutta, intro. § 8; ch. iii. § 6; ix. § 4.
Must, intro. § 34.
Mûtâ R., intro. § 34.
Muttra (Mat'hura), intro. § 9; ch. ii. § 9.
Muzaffurghar, intro. § 12.
Muzaffir Nagar, intro. § 9.
Myanoung, intro. § 15.
Myhere, intro. § 24.
Mylôg, intro. § 24.
Mymensing, intro. § 8.
Mynpûrî, intro. § 9; ch. x. § 170.
Mysôr (Maisûr), intro. § 14, 24; ch. x. § 89; xii.

N

Nabha, Cis-Satlaj state, intro. § 24; ch. xi. § 8.
Nâga (Hills), intro. § 8.
Nagar (Bednûr, Mysôr), intro. § 14; ch. xii. § 14.
Nâgarkôt, ch. ii. § 8; xi. § 5.
Nagôde, intro. § 24.
Nâgpur (Snake-town), the district is called Gondwâna, from its aborigines, the Gônds, intro. § 13, 23; ch. v. § 159.
Nahun, intro. § 24.
Nalaghar, intro. § 24.
Nanda Dêvî, intro. § 33.
Nandair, ch. iii. § 12. See map of the Nizâm's dominions.
Nandidrûg, intro. § 14, 34; ch. xii. § 1. The Pâlâr and Pennâr rise near here.
Nargund, intro. § 18. Rebelled in 1857. Cruel massacre.
Narrain, ch. i. § 7.
Narsinga (name of the Bîja-nagar kingdom), ch. iii. § 3.
Narsinghûr, intro. § 13.
Nâsik (*Nassuck*), 100 miles north of Pûna, on the Godâvarî, whose source is close by (see Trimback), intro. § 34.
Negapatam (Nâgapatnam), ch. x. § 82; xii. § 30.
Nellore (Nellûr), intro. § 16, 34; ch. x. § 44.
Nelisuram, ch. i. § 29.
Nerbudda (River), (*Narmada*), intro. § 34.
Newâj, intro. § 36.
Nicobâr (Islands), intro. § 38.
Nîlagiri (Hills), intro. § 16, 23, 31; ch. x. § 42; xii. § 8 (= *the blue mountains*).
Nîma (River), intro. § 34.
Nîmar, intro. § 13.
Nîpal, sub-Himâlayan state, intro. § 23, 27; ch. x. § 74.
Noakhally, intro. § 8.
Nowânagar, intro. § 18, 24.
Nowgong, intro. § 8.
Nowshêra, ch. iii. § 5 (6).
Nuddea (*Nava-dwîpa* = new island), intro. § 8; ch. ii. § 19.

O

Okhamandel, a district in Kâttiyawâr. Here dwell the Wâghars, pirates and robbers.
Omri, Bandêlkhand, intro. § 12.
Onore (Honore, Honâwar), ch. xii. § 20.
Oomrawutty (Amravatî), intro. § 20.
Oonao, intro. § 11.
Oorcha (Tehrî), intro. § 24.
Ooskatta, ch. v. § 7. Hosa-Kôtta = *new fort*.
Ootacamund, intro. § 16; ch. x. § 98.
Orissa, intro. § 8, 17, 23, 28, 33; ch. iv. § 13; x. § 190.
Ormuz, ch. vi. § 13–20.
Oudh (Ayodhya, Kôshala), intro. § 11; ch. i. § 6; iii. § 12, 17; x. § 4, 32, 34, 39, 108, 150, 151.
Oudipûr (Ûdîpûr), intro. § 24, 25, 36; ch. iii. § 6, 10; v. § 142.
Oujein (Ûjein), ch. i. § 9, 23; iii. § 8; v. § 110.
Oxus, or *Amû Daria*, falls into the sea of Âral, ch. i. § 29.

P

Paharî, intro. § 24.
Pâhlunpûr, intro. § 18, 24.
Pain-Gangâ, falls into the N. Waïda, near Chanda, intro. § 34.
Paithun, ch. i. § 9; iv. § 14.
Palamanêr (Pulamanair), near Chittôr, in the Mûglî pass.
Pâlâr (River), intro. § 34.
Pâlghât, this is sixty-eight miles S.E. from Calicut, ch. xii. § 36.
Palibothra (Patna ?), ch. i. § 8, 19, 29.
Palikâd Pass, ch. xii. § 41.
Palmyras, Pt., intro. § 34.
Palni (Hills), intro. § 33. In the Madura district.
Palpa, a district of Nipal, ch. x. § 74.
Panch Mahâls, intro. § 18.
Pândya, ch. i. § 28.
Pânipat, battlefield, ch. ii. § 16, 47; iii. § 1–3, 6, 15, 19, 20, 22, 23; v. § 1, 58, 68–70; viii. § 32; x. § 38.
Panjâb, intro. § 10, 23; ch. xi.

Panjim (Pangaum), is New Goa, about three miles from Old Goa, intro. § 19, ch. vi. § 12, 14, 22.
Parbatti (River), intro. § 36. A tributary of the Chambal.
Parone (Narwâr), intro. § 12.
Patâla, ch. i. § 19.
Patharea, intro. § 12.
Patna (Padmavati), intro. § 8; ch. ix. § 13, 22. At the junction of the Gunduck and the Ganges.
Patowdî, intro. § 24.
Pattan, ch. i. § 26; ii. § 32.
Pattiâla, Cis-Satlaj state, intro. § 24, 25; ch. xi. § 8; ii. § 7.
Pâwangarh, ch. v. § 129.
Pedro (Point), intro. § 37. In North Ceylon.
Pegu, intro. § 15, 23; ch. x. § 79, 140, 151.
Penang, intro. § 23.
Penkonda, ch. iv. § 29.
Pennâr (River), intro. § 34. The Punâr is sometimes called the Southern Pennâr.
Pergumnahs, the twenty-four, intro. § 23; ch. ix. § 11.
Periapatam, ch. xii. § 51.
Persia, ch. x. § 69, 155.
Pertabghar, (1) intro. § 11; (2) ch. v. § 14; (3) intro. § 36.
Peshâwar, intro. § 1, 2, 10; ch. xi. § 4.
Pind Dâdan Khân, ch. xi. § 3.
Plassey (Palasi), ch. ix. § 1, 10.
Point de Galle, intro. § 37.
Pollilore, Battles, ch. xii. § 27, 29.
Ponâni (Paniani), ch. xii. § 34. On the river of the same name. The headquarters of the Moplas.
Pondicherry (*Pudu chêri* = *new town*), ch. vii. § 7; viii. § 32.
Porebunder, intro. § 18.
Port Blair, intro. § 38.
Port Cornwallis, intro. § 38.
Porto Novo, ch. xii. § 28. On the sea-coast, eighteen miles S. of Cuddalôr.
Pratâpghar = *Pertabghar*.
Prayâg (S.), ch. i. § 29. (= confluence.)
Prome, intro. § 15; ch. x. § 79.
Pubna, intro. § 8.
Pudukôta, intro. § 16, 24.
Pûna, intro. § 18, 23; ch. v. § 9, 11, 56. Near the junction of the Mûtâ and Mûlâ rivers.
Pulicat, ch. xii. § 32; vii. § 4.
Punâr, intro. § 34.
Punderpûr (Punya-d'hara-pura = merit bestowing), ch. v. § 147.

Punna, intro. § 12, 24.
Punniâr, a few miles from Gwâliôr, ch. x. § 124.
Pûrandar (Poorundhur), ch. v. § 12, 92, 165. 4,472 feet above the level of the sea.
Pûrb, intro. § 28.
Pûrî (Pooree), intro. § 8.
Purinda, ch. v. § 124.
Pûrna, N. (River), intro. § 34.
Pûrna, S. (River), intro. § 34.
Pûrnia (Pûrneah), intro. § 8.

Q

Quilon (*Kulam*, anc. Coulan), ch. vi. § 10. Founded A.D. 825.

R

Radhanpûr, intro. § 18, 24.
Raepûr, intro. § 13.
Râgâghur, intro. § 12.
Raighur, this is on the Ghâts, to the east of the Konkan, thirty-four miles south-west from Pûna, ch. v. § 15, 19, 21, 24, 165.
Raisin, ch. iii. § 5.
Râjamandrî (Râjahmundry), ch. iv. § 11; iii. § 16 (5).
Râjapûr, ch. v. § 61. A flourishing port, north of Viziadrûg
Râjghar, intro. § 12.
Râjkôt, intro. § 18.
Râjmahâl (Hills), intro. § 33; ch. x. § 149.
Râjnagar, intro. § 36.
Rajpîpla, intro. § 18, 24. In the Rêwa Kânta, Bombay.
Râjpûtâna, intro. § 13, 36; ch. v. § 153; x. § 102, 190.
Râjshâhî, intro. § 8.
Râmdrûg, intro. § 24.
Râm Gangâ (River), intro. § 34.
Râmiseram (Râmêswaram), ch. iv. § 17.
Râmnagar, ch. xi. § 3, 40.
Râmpûr, intro. § 24; ch. ix. § 36.
Rangoon, intro. § 15; ch. x. § 79.
Raptî, intro. § 34.

Rasûl, ch. xi. § 42.
Ratnagerry, intro. § 18. (Ratna-giri = *hill of jewels.*) The principal civil station in the S. Konkan.
Rauzah, six miles from Aurungâbâd; the burial-place of Aurungzîb, ch. iii. § 9 (18).
Ravî (River), intro. § 34; ch. i. § 29; xi. § 3.
Râwal Pindî, intro. § 10; ch. xi. § 3, 43.
Râya Kotta, ch. xii. § 52. A strong fort, commanding the Ambûr Pass.
Retchnâ Doâb, ch. xi. § 3.
Rôwa, intro. § 12, 24.
Rôwa Kânta, intro. § 18.
Rêwârî, S.W. of Delhi, ch. v. § 151.
Rintambôr, ch. ii. § 23.
Rivers of India, intro. § 34.
Rohilkhand, ch. ix. § 36; iii. § 15.
Rohlak, intro. § 10.
Rôhtas, (1) ch. iii. § 4; (2) xi. § 18.
Roy Bareilly, intro. § 11.
Rungpûr, intro. § 8.
Rûpar, ch. x. § 101; xi. § 26.
Rûrkî, ch. x. § 136.
Rutlam, intro. § 12.

S

Salmurîka, intro. § 34.
Sadras, ch. vii. § 4. A ruined Dutch settlement.
Sâgar, intro. § 13.
Sagres, ch. vi. § 1.
Salbâi, ch. v. § 102; xii. § 31.
Salem, intro. § 16.
Salsette, ch. v. § 88. An island N. of Bombay, and now joined to it by a causeway. Here are the Kanari caves and the fort of Tannah.
Salt Range, in the Panjâb, ch. xi. § 3.
Salwîn (River), intro. § 1; ch. x. § 79.
Samarkhand, taken by Russia, May 2, 1868, ch. ii. § 43; iii. § 3.
Sambal, ch. iii. § 4.
Sambhur, intro. § 36.
Sangamêshwar, ch. v.
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Saverndrûg (Swarna Dûrga, the Golden Fortress), a small island, eighty-six miles south by east from Bombay, (1) ch. v. § 65; (2) xii. § 1.
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Singhur, strong fort, twelve miles south of Pûna, ch. v. § 12, 16. It was originally called Kondaneh; but Sivajî called it *the lion's den*.
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Sitâbaldî, two hills about a mile from Nâgpûr. Here is the British Residency, ch. v. § 159.
Sita-mhow, intro. § 12.
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Sorath, a most beautiful and interesting district in Kâttiawâd.
Srâvana Belgula, thirty-three miles N.W. from Seringapatam, the chief place of the Jains. Here is a gigantic image of Gômatarâya, sixty feet high, cut out of the rocky hill.
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Sunderbands (=*beautiful woods*), marshy islands in the delta of the Ganges.

Surâshtra (=*excellent land*), the ancient name for Kâttiwâr and Gujarât. Sûrat is a corruption of it, intro. § 18.
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Tripetti (Tirupathi, or Vêngadam), in N. Arcot, given as the northern limit of the Tamil language, intro. § 16.
Trivandram (*tiru-anantla-puram* = town of sacred delight), the capital of Travancore.
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Tuljapûr, ch. v. § 7.
Tûmbhadra (River), intro. § 34; ch. v. § 106.
Tûnga (River), intro. § 34; ch. xii. § 1, 43.
Turoch, intro. § 24.
Tuticorin (Tuttukudi), a harbour in Tinnevelly, an old Dutch settlement; now a cotton mart. There are pearl banks here.

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Udapi, ch. ii. § 17.
Údghîr (Oudgheer), battle, ch. v. § 68. (Udaya-giri = the hill of the sunrise.)
Újein (see Oujein).
Ulwar (Alwar), intro. § 24, 36.
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Umbeyla Pass, ch. x. § 189. A town and pass in the hills between the Kâbul and the Indus.
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V

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Viziadrûg, south of Bombay. Splendid harbour, ch. v. § 65, 113. (Vijaya-durg = *fort of victory*. Called also GHERIA, or fort.)
Vizianagaram (Vijaya-nagaram = *town of victory*), intro. § 16.

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Wâi, a beautiful town near the sources of the Kishtna, thirty-five miles south from Pûna, ch. v. § 42.
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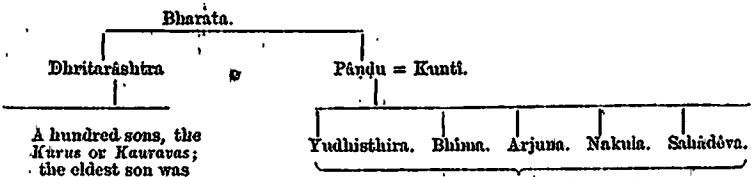
THE MAHÂBHÂRATA. (Note to § 7, ch. i.)

Its main subject is the war of the *Pándavas* and *Kauravas*. Their common ancestor was Bharata, King of Hastinápura.
The following table will be useful:—


Bharata.
Dhritaráshtra
Pándu = Kunti.
A hundred sons, the Kúrus or Kauravas; the eldest son was Duryódhana.
Yudhisthira. Bhíma. Arjuna. Nakula. Sahádéva.
Draupadi was their joint wife.
These were the Pándus or Pándavas.
Their tutor was Dróna.

Pándu, though he was the younger, succeeded *Bharata*; but abdicated the kingdom in favour of *Dhritaráshtra*, and retired to the Himálayas, where he died. His sons returned, and *Yudhisthira* was installed as his uncle's coadjutor and successor. The jealousy of *Duryódhana* and his brothers procured at length from their blind old father the banishment of the Pándus.
These latter were *Draupadí*, daughter of *Drupada*, King of *Panchála*, by their skill in archery, displayed at the *Swayamvara* (see Index); and building *Indraprashta*, became powerful kings. But Yudhisthira lost everything at the gambling-table to his rival Duryódhana; and with difficulty the Pándavas and Draupadí were permitted to go into the forest as exiles. After twelve years of wandering, with *Krishna* as their powerful ally, the Pándus met their rivals on the field of *Kurakshétra* (the Kurus' field), and the great battle, which lasted eighteen days, and in which all the chivalry of India was engaged, was fought. The issue was that only three of the Kurus and the five Pándavas with their wife survived. In the hour of their triumph the latter retired to the Himálayas, unable to survive the death of their kindred. (Comp. ch. i. § 13; ch. iv. § 20.)
There are many important and beautiful episodes in this vast poem, which extends to one hundred thousand lines.
It is very doubtful whether any trustworthy historical inferences can be drawn from this legend.

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NUWÂB of Arcot, ch. vii. § 7.
—— of Banda, ch. v. § 158.
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OPIUM war, ch. x. § 111.
—— grown in Mâlwâ, Patna, intro. § 12.

PÂDSHÂH, ch. xii. § 37; iii. § 3 (4).
PÂLI, the language of ancient Magadha, the sacred language of the Buddhists and Jains, intro. § 37.
PÂNDUS, ch. i. § 7.
PÂNDYA kingdom, ch. iv. § 5.
PARAMOUNT state, duties of, ch. x. § 81.
PÂRSÎS, or fire-worshippers, driven by persecution from Persia in the fourth century, they settled in Ormuz, and thence passed over the Western Coast, where they are numerous and wealthy.
PATÂN = Afghân.
PEACOCKS (from India), ch. i. § 16.
PEACOCK-THRONE of Shâh Jehân, ch. iii. § 8, 15.
PEISHWÂS, ch. v. § 157.
PENAL code, ch. x. § 188.
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PERMANENT settlement, ch. x. § 23.

PHILOSOPHY, ch. i. § 15.
The six systems are.
I. The NYÂYA, whose author was *Gôtama*. Resembles the dialectics of *Aristotle*. Idealistic.
II. The VAISÊSHIKA, whose author was *Kanâda*, the Hindû *Democritus*. Epicurean and Heterodox.
III. The MÎMÂMSÂ. Canons of interpretation. A system of orthodox vêdic exegesis. Its author was *Jaimani*.
IV. The VÊDÂNTA. A system of Pantheism and fatalism.
V. The SÂNKHYA, whose author was *Kapila*. The sceptical school. Sensual, materialistic, and atheistic. Buddhism and the Jain system are most nearly allied to this philosophy.
VI. The PÂTANJALA. Theistic, ascetic. The mystical school.
PINDÂRÎS, ch. v. § 148.
PIRACY, ch. v. § 145.
POETS, ch. i. § 6, 7, 13; ch. ii. § 12, 29; iii. § 6; iv. § 20.
POLIGÂRS, ch. iv. § 6.
POLITICAL divisions of British India, intro. § 6.
PORTUGUESE history, ch. vi.
—— possessions, intro. § 19.
PRÂKRIT, a corrupt, colloquial dialect of Sanskrit.
PRISONERS in Afghânistân, ch. x. § 110.
PRIVATE trade, ch. x. § 47, 20.
PURÂNAS, ch. i. § 6, 10, 14.
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QUEEN, the only one that ever reigned in Delhi, ch. ii. § 25.
QUEEN'S Government assumes the direct administration of India, ch. x. § 186.
QUEEN of England's proclamation, ch. x. § 186.

RAILWAYS in India, ch. x. § 142.
RÂJASÛYA, a sacrifice performed by one who claimed to be a universal monarch, and who feasted and offered in the midst of his tributary princes.
RÂJPÛTS, ch. iii. § 3; iv. § 9–14; v. § 48, 107, 136, 153.
RÂMÂYANA, ch. i. § 6, 13.
This is the great legend of the solar race. *Dasaratha*, King of Oudh (Ayodhya), had four sons, *Râma* (now worshipped as an incarnation of Vishnu), *Lakshmana*, *Bharata*, and *Satrughna*. The mother of Bharata was *Kaikéyí*. *Sumitrá* was the mother of the other three. Râma was married to *Sítá*, daughter of *Janaka*, King of *Mithilá* (*Tirhût*); and by the voice of the people was designated his father's coadjutor. *Kaikéyí*, to whom the uxorious king had promised whatever she should ask, demanded the banishment of Râma and the appointment of her son Bharata. Râma accordingly departed into exile, attended by the faithful Sitá and Lakshmana. The wanderers, after traversing the districts around the Jamna and the Ganges, at length reached the great forest of *Dandaka*, to the south. Dasaratha now died, worn-out with grief, and Bharata nobly refusing to supplant Râma, the shoe of the latter was placed on the vacant throne. The exiles now visited *Agastya*, the mighty Rishi, and Râma received from him a bow and arrows of magical power. Proceeding southward, they met with *Rákshasas*, incarnate demons of huge size. One of this race, called *Rávana*, was King of Ceylon at the time, and he carried off *Sítá* to his palace in that island.
Râma, after destroying an army of fourteen thousand Rákshasas, hastened to Ceylon to recover his wife. His allies were the monkeys, of whom an innumerable host accompanied

RÂMÂYANA—*cont.*
him. *Sugríva* was the monkey-king, whose capital was on the site where *Bijanagar* afterwards stood; and the famous *Hanumán* was the monkey-general. This latter passed over to Ceylon in search of Sitá, and set the island on fire. In extinguishing the flames he blackened his face; but Sitá promised that on his return he should not be singular on that account, as he should find all his race with black faces.

A bridge was then constructed from the mainland to Ceylon. This was at *Ramnad*, the zamíndár of which claims the title of *Sétu-pati*, or guardian of the bridge. Rávana was slain, Sitá freed, her purity ascertained by an ordeal of fire, the whole party returned in triumph to Ayodha, the fourteen appointed years of exile being accomplished, and Ráma ascended his ancestral throne.

This poem, in which great beauties are found side by side with the most childish absurdities, is popular and influential in every part of India.

The most recent investigations seem to show that it is destitute of historical foundation.

RATHORS, ch. i. § 27; ii. § 16.
RECALL of Lord Ellenborough, ch. x. § 126.
—— of Lord William Bentinck, ch. x. § 88.
REGULATING Act, ch. x. § 2.
REVENUE settlement, ch. x. § 92.
REVOLUTIONS in Bengál, ch. ix. § 10, 16, 21, 28.
RIVERS of India, intro. § 34.
ROSHENÍYAS, ch. iii. § 6 (17).
RUSSIAN influence, ch. x. § 110; § 190.
RYOTWÁR system, ch. x. § 84 (= ráyatwár).

"Under the *Ryotwár* system, every registered holder of land is recognised as its proprietor, and pays direct to the Government; he can sublet, transfer, sell, or mortgage it; he cannot be ejected

RYOTWÁR system—*cont.*
by the Government, and so long as he pays the fixed assessment, he has the option of annually increasing or diminishing the cultivation on his holding; or, he may entirely abandon it. In unfavourable seasons remissions of assessment are granted for loss of produce. The assessment is fixed in money, and does not vary from year to year, except when water is obtained from a Government source of irrigation; nor is any addition made to the rent for improvements effected at the ryot's own expense; he has, therefore, all the benefit of a perpetual lease without its responsibilities, as he can at any time throw up his lands; but cannot be ejected so long as he pays his dues, and he receives assistance in difficult seasons. The original assessment (in Madras) was unfortunately fixed too high; but the reductions and re-assessments made of late years are materially improving the position of the cultivators. An annual settlement is made, not to re-assess the land, but to determine upon how much of his holding the ryot shall pay; when no change occurs in a holding, the ryot is not affected by the annual settlement, and is not required to attend it. The *ryotwár system* may be said essentially to prevail throughout the Madras and Bombay presidencies, as the Zamíndár and village renter equally deal with their tenants on this principle."

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SALÓNKAS. ch. i. § 26.
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Alíghar, ch. v. § 130.
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Bassein (2), ch. v. § 51, 101; vi. § 20.
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Bîjanagar, ch. iv. § 29.
Bîjapûr, ch. iii. § 9; iv. § 23.
Champnîr, ch. iii § 4.
Châṇdêrî, ch. iii. § 3.
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Choul, ch. vi. § 19.
Chîtôr, ch. ii. § 32.
Dêogiri, ch. ii. § 31.
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Deonhalli, ch. xii. § 11.
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SIEGES—*cont.*
Wandiwash, ch. xii. § 28.
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SUPREME Courts, ch. x. § 2, 5, 10, 145, 188.
SUTTEE (Satî), ch. x. § 93.
SWAYAMVARA (= *self-selection*). A princess was in ancient Hindû times allowed to choose a husband for herself from the multitude of suitors, who exhibited their prowess, wealth, and accomplishments before her. Some of the prettiest Hindû stories turn upon this. Thus did *Damayantî* choose *Nala*. *Râma* won *Sîtâ*, and *Arjuna* won *Draupadî* at a tournament of this kind.
SYRIAN CHRISTIANS. These have existed in Travancore from the third century, A.D. They now number about one hundred and twenty thousand. Their bishops came originally from Persia, ch. vi. § 21.
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22. Early history of E. I. Companies, ch. vii. § 7.

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—— of *Umritsîr*, ch. xi. § 24.
—— of *Seringapatam*, ch. xii.
—— of *Lâhôr I.*, ch. xi. § 34; x. § 67.
—— of *Lâhôr II.* ch. xi. § 44.
—— between Ranjît Sing, Shâh Shuja, and Lord Auckland, 1838, ch. x. § 110 (*e*).
TULUVA, ch. iv. § 4.
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URIYA, the language of Orissa, ch. iv. § 4.

VAISYAS, ch. i. § 4.
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There are nominally four vêdas. These are the *rîj, yajur, sâma,* and *atharva*. The three former have been studied and translated by European scholars. Each of these consists of *Sanhitâs* or psalms, and *Brâhmanas*, or rubrical directions. The *Sanhitâs* of the Rig-vêda are the oldest part of the vêdas, and enter largely into the composition of the other three. "To this" (says H. H. Wilson) "we must go principally, if not exclusively, for correct notions of the oldest and most genuine forms of the institutions, religious or civil, of the Hindûs." They contain about ten thousand stanzas. AGNI (god of fire), INDRA (lord of the firmament), the MARUTS (personified winds), VARUNA (the god of the sea), MITRA (the sun), and the two ÂSWINS (sons of the sun), are the chief deities addressed. The hymns are given as the work of certain inspired psalmists, or *Rishis*. The worship of the ancient Âryans consisted, as the Sanhitâs show, of oblations and libations of clarified butter and of the expressed juice of the sôma plant (*sarkostema viminalis*). The modern Hindû systems find no support in the vêdas. They contain faint indications of a belief in the immortality of the soul.

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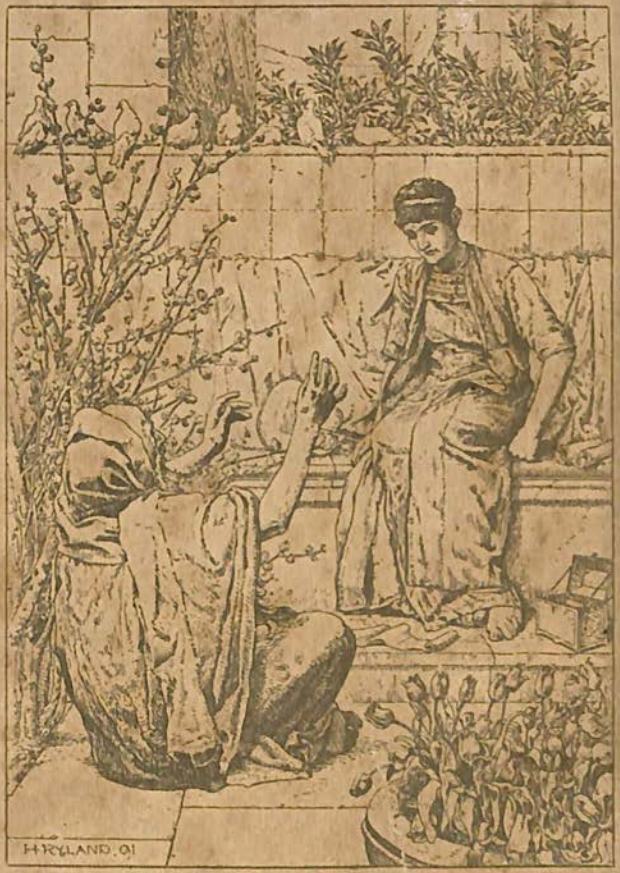
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